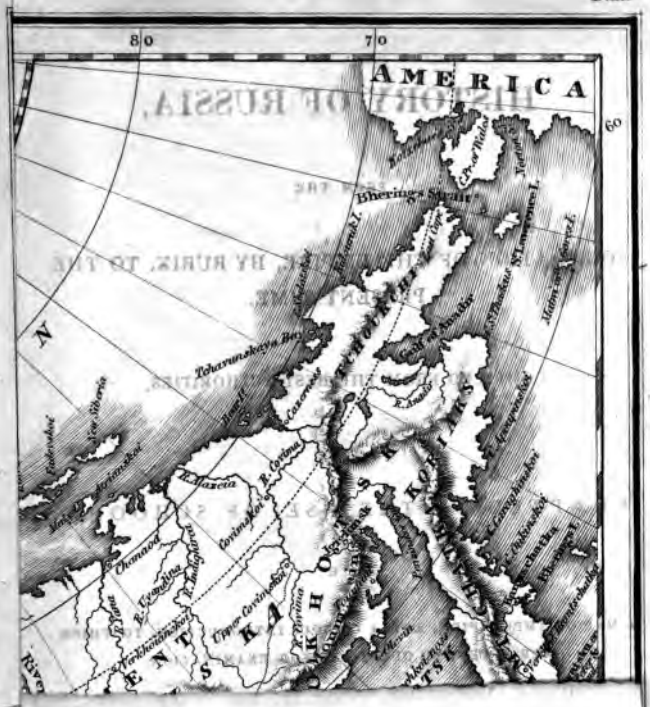
Plate


80
70
60
AMERICA
C. Prince of Wales
Bherings Strait
St. Lawrence I.
TCHOUKCHI
Tchavunskaya Bay
Gulf of Anadir
R. Anadir
KORIAKS
N
New Siberia
R. Alazea
R. Covima
Covimskoi
Upper Covimskoi
Chanaod
R. Indighirca
R. Yana
Verkhoiansckoi
River

HISTORY OF RUSSIA,

FROM THE

FOUNDATION OF THE EMPIRE, BY RURIK, TO THE PRESENT TIME.

COMPILED FROM THE BEST AUTHORITIES,

AND

ADAPTED TO THE USE OF SCHOOLS;

WITH

A MAP OF THE EMPIRE, AND A COPIOUS INTRODUCTION, TO WHICH ARE APPENDED QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

BY THE REV. T. WILLCOCKS

Devonport:

W. BYERS, BOOKSELLER TO HIS MAJESTY, FORE-STREET.

1832.

PREFACE.

THE following work is an attempt to supply what must be considered a *desideratum*—a cheap and compendious History of Russia, derived from the best sources, and brought down to the present times.

The compiler is greatly indebted for the materials of his publication to LEVESQUE'S *Histoire de Russie*, a work of extensive erudition and profound research; and which, on account of its impartial accuracy,* has received the decided approbation of the Russians themselves. He has also to acknowledge his obligations to TOOKE'S History of Russia, the first systematic account of that country that was published in our language; to ANDERSON'S History of Russia, which he had not the pleasure of seeing until he had made considerable progress in his undertaking; to JONES'S Continuation of RUSSEL'S Modern History of Europe, and to other works of a similar description.

In the account which he has given of the invasion of Russia, by the French, of their retreat from Moscow, and of the important events which followed, he has taken the liberty of borrowing several descriptions of battles, &c. from Sir WALTER SCOTT'S Life of Napoleon; but as from the nature of his undertaking, he has been obliged to insert these in a condensed and abridged form, he has dispensed with the usual signs of quotation. He wishes this remark to be applied to other instances of the same kind.

* The learned author, in order to derive his information from the best sources, acquired the Slavonian language, and devoted several years to the examination of the chronicles, and other historical documents which are deposited in the archives of the Russian empire.

PREFACE.

The compiler regrets that he has not observed uniformity in the spelling of some foreign names. The intelligent reader, however, can scarcely fail to perceive that Suwarrow and Suwarof, are intended to designate the same courageous and brutal soldier; Cossacks and Kozacks, the same marauding tribes, &c. &c.

To prevent the enlargement of the work to an inconvenient size, the questions for examination which were designed to be appended to the history, have been omitted; but, if required, they shall be furnished in a cheap and separate publication.

The present commanding position and ambitious conquests of Russia, render her an object of peculiar attention to all who cherish an interest in the future destinies of Europe, and even of the civilized world. It is hoped, therefore, that this attempt to furnish a rapid sketch of her history from the earliest times, and to trace the steps by which she has arrived at her present eminence will meet a candid and favourable reception from the public.

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TABLE OF RUSSIAN SOVEREIGNS.

HOUSE OF RURIK.	Began to Reign.	Reigned Years.	HOUSES OF RURIK AND ROMANOF.	Began to Reign.	Reigned Years.
Rurik	864	15	Yaroslaf III.	1264	7
Oleg	879	34	Basil I.	1272	4
Igor I.	913	32	Dmitri	1276	18
Olga	945	un-certain.	Andrey III.	1294	10
			Mikhail III.	1304	15
Sviatoslaf I.	un-known		Yury III.	1320	3
			Dmitri II.	1323	3
Yaropolk I.	973	8	Alexander II.	1327	1
Vladimir I.	981	34	Ivan I.	1328	13
Sviatopolk I.	1015	4	Simeon	1341	12
Yaroslaf	1019	35	Ivan II.	1353	5
Isiaslaf I.	1054	24	Dmitri III.	1358	4
Vsevolod I.	1078	15	Dmitri IV.	1362	27
Sviatopolk II.	1093	20	Basil II.	1389	36
Vladimir II.	1114	11	Basil III.	1425	37
Mstislaf	1125	7	Ivan III.	1462	43
Yaropolk II.	1132	6	Basil IV.	1505	28
Viatcheslaf	1138	Abdicated.	Ivan IV.	1533	51
			Fedor I.	1584	14
Vsevolod II.	1138	8	Boris Godunof	1598	7
Igor II.	1146	6 weeks	Fedor II.	1605	
Isiaslaf II.	1147	8	Dmitri V.	1605	1
Yury I.	1149	5	Shuiski	1606	4
Rotislaf	1154	Abdicated in the same yr.	Michael Romanof*	1613	32
			Alexey	1645	31
			Fedor III.	1676	5
Isiaslaf II.	1154	ditto.	Ivan V. & Peter I.	1681	8
Andrey I.	1158	17	Peter I.	1689	36
Mikhail I.	1175	2	Catherine I.	1725	2
Vsevolod III.	1177	35	Peter II.	1727	3
Yury II.	1212	25	Anne	1730	10
Yaroslaf II.	1239	9	Elizabeth	1740	21
Sviatoslaf III.	1246	2	Peter III.	1761	1
Mikhail II.	1248	a few months.	Catherine II.	1762	34
			Paul	1796	5
Sviatoslaf IV.	1248	1	Alexander III.	1801	24
Andrey II.	1249	3	Nicholas I.	1825	Now reigning.
Alexander I.	1252	12			

* At this Monarch commences the house of Romanof.

INTRODUCTION

TO

RUSSIAN HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

BOUNDARIES, EXTENT, AND DIVISIONS OF RUSSIA.

Boundaries and Extent.] RUSSIA,* comprising a large portion of Europe, all the northern regions of Asia, and a small part of America, is the most extensive territory that has ever been united under one government.†

This vast empire is bounded on the north, by the Frozen Ocean; on the south by Turkey, the Black Sea, the steppes of the Kirguiss Cossacks and the Chinese dominions;‡ on the east by the Pacific or Oriental Ocean; and on the west by Swedish Lapland, the gulf of Bothnia, Prussia, and Gallicia.

The greatest extent of this empire is from Abo in Finland, to the strait which separates Asia from America; that is, from the 22nd to the 190th degree of east longi-

* From Rossi, or Russi, a Slavonic tribe.

† The following is a comparative view of the extent of all the great empires, both ancient and modern, viz.:—

	Square miles.
The RUSSIAN EMPIRE, contains	7,000,000
The ANCIENT PERSIAN Ditto, B. C. 400	1,450,000
The ANCIENT ROMAN Ditto, A. D. 180	1,700,000
The BRAZILIAN Ditto	2,200,000
The EMPIRE of CHARLES V. A. D. 1556	3,500,000
The CHINESE Ditto, including Tartary	3,000,000
The MEXICAN REPUBLIC	1,700,000
The BRITISH EMPIRE, with its foreign possessions	1,100,000

‡ The boundary line between the Russian and Chinese empires is the most extensive on the globe, reaching from about the 65th to the 145th degree of longitude: 80 degrees of which, in latitude 50 degrees, computed at 39 geographical miles, will give the result of 3120 miles, as the extent of the boundary line between the two states.

tude from Greenwich:* consequently it stretches over 170 degrees of longitude. Its extent from north to south varies; in some places it begins at the 47th, and terminates at the 71st degree of north latitude; in others, at the 40th, the 45th, and even the 55th degree, and terminates at the 73rd or 78th: its greatest extent in a southerly direction is 38 degrees.

Russia, which was at first confined to narrow limits,† has attained its present magnitude, by a variety of aggressions and conquests. The principal of these are the following:

1. The Kingdom of Kazan, conquered by Tzar Ivan Vassillievitch, in 1552.

2. The Kingdom of Astrachan, taken from the Tartars by the same monarch.

3. Siberia, an empire more extensive than Mexico or Peru, which, Yermack, a rebellious Hetman of the Don Cossacks, subdued in 1573, and presented to the Tzar, in atonement for his revolt.

4. White Russia, including Smolensk, ceded by Poland in 1667, and Polotsk and Mohilof, wrested from her in 1772.

5. Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, Carelia, Viborg, and several islands in the gulf of Finland, received from Sweden, at the peace concluded between the two powers, in 1721.

6. The Crimea, the island of Taman, and a great part of the Kuban, annexed by a treaty which Catherine II. compelled the Porte to sign in 1784.

7. The Dukedoms of Lithuania and Courland, added in 1793, and a large part of Poland, gained by the partition of that country in 1795.

8. Georgia, annexed in 1801; and Ballystock, in 1807.

9. Finland, acquired by the war with Sweden, in 1809.

10. The province of Bessarabia, and the eastern part of Moldavia, obtained by a treaty of peace with Turkey in 1811.

* If we reckon 30 geographical miles to a degree, which appears to be a just medium-calculation, the whole length will be 5040 miles.

† The countries which surround Novogorod, Moscow, and Kief.

The grand duchy of Warsaw was also made a part of the empire in 1815, but now constitutes a great part of the present kingdom of Poland.

Divisions.] The empire of Russia has undergone various changes in its political divisions. The old denomination of Great, Little, and White Russia, was retained till the beginning of the 18th century, when Peter the Great introduced the division into governments and provinces. In 1796, Catherine II. divided it into fifty governments, and these again into districts, military governors being appointed to each government. In 1808, Paul annulled this division, and formed another of forty-one governments. When Alexander ascended the throne, he re-established most of the governments which his father had abolished, and again made the number fifty. The following are its present chief divisions:—

GOVERNMENTS OF THE NORTH.

Governments.	*Capitals.*
Finland	Abo
Wyburg	Wyburg
Olonetz	Olonetz
Archangel	Archangel
Esthonia	Revel
St. Petersburgh	St. Petersburgh
Novogorod	Novogorod-Veliki
Vologda	Vologda
Livonia	Riga
Pskove	Pskove
Twer	Twer
Jarosla	Jarosla
Kostroma	Kostroma

GOVERNMENTS IN THE CENTRE.

Governments.	*Capitals.*
Smolensko	Smolensko
Moscow	Moscow
Volodimir	Volodimir
Nizney Novogorod	Nizney Novogorod
Kaluga	Kaluga

Tula	Tula
Riazan	Riazan
Tambof	Tambof
Orel	Orel
Kursk	Kursk
Woronetz	Woronetz
Tschenigo	Tschenigo
Ukraine	Karkof

GOVERNMENTS OF THE SOUTH.

Governments.	*Capitals.*
Kief	Kief
Catharinoslaf	Catharinoslaf
Cossacks	Tscherkaskoy
Taurina	Caffa
Caucasus (part in Asia)	

GOVERNMENTS OF THE EAST.

Governments.	*Capitals.*
Perm, (part in Asia)	Perm
Vyatka	Vyatka
Orenburg (part in Asia)	Orenburg
Kazan	Kazan
Simbirsk	Simbirsk
Penza	Penza
Saratof	Saratof

GOVERNMENTS OF THE WEST.

Governments.	*Capitals.*
Witepsk	Witepsk
Moghilef	Moghilef
Courland	Mittau
Wilna	Wilna
Grodno	Grodno
Minsk	Minsk
Volhynia	Lucko
Podolia	Kaminieck
Cherson	Cherson

CHAPTER II.

EUROPEAN RUSSIA.

Boundaries and extent.] It is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the east by Asia; on the west by Sweden, the Gulf of Bothnia, the Baltic, Prussia, Poland, and Austria; and on the south by Turkey, and the Black Sea. It reaches from about 44 to 72 degrees of north latitude; and from 22 to 60 degrees of east longitude from Greenwich. Its superficial extent has been computed at 1,200,000 miles.

STEPPES, AND MOUNTAINS,

Steppes.] A country so extensive must present considerable variety of surface, but it is distinguished by vast and elevated plains, commonly denominated steppes. Some of these are very fertile; others are mere saline wastes; while a middle class contain patches of vegetation, which, in summer, afford pasture for flocks. The most famous of these steppes are, 1—The steppe of Petshora, which lies between the Dwina and the Petshora, and extends from 63 degrees of latitude, to the shores of the White Sea. This plain abounds with marshes and sands, interspersed with forests and small lakes, and, with the exception of the districts of Archangel and Mesen, is almost destitute of inhabitants. 2—The Steppe of the Dnieper, including the Crimean desert, and comprised between the Dnieper, the Don, and the sea of Azof. This vast desert consists in general of dry sand, with numerous salt lakes, and is but thinly peopled. Its appearance indicates that it was once the bed of a sea, whose waters, by bursting the Thracian Bosphorus, may

have flowed into the Mediterranean. 3—The Steppe of the Don and Volga, which comprises the space between these rivers, and is extremely arid. 4—The Steppe of the Volga and Ural. This extensive tract comprehends, between the rivers Volga and Ural, all that flat country which was formerly denominated the Kalmyk Steppe, and, between the Ural and the Yembra, a part of the Kerghisti Steppe, lying within the Russian borders. To the south it bounds on the Caspian Sea, and to the north it skirts the mountains that run out from the Ural chain. This plain is in general sandy, but it contains a great number of districts, well adapted both to grazing, and agriculture.

The steppes are frequently set on fire by the negligence of travellers, or by the malice of rebellious hordes, and sometimes even by the herdsmen, in order to forward the crops of grass. This catastrophe often occasions great mischief; the spreading flames expose the dwellings of the inhabitants to imminent danger, consume the corn on the ground, and even seize on the forests.

Mountains.] European Russia is not remarkable for its mountains: the most distinguished are those of Olonetz in the north, and those of Ural, which divide Europe from Asia.

Olonetz. The mountains of Olonetz commence in the northern extremity of Lapland, and extend about 15 degrees towards the south. The northern parts, though of moderate height, are constantly covered with snow; the southern regions are clothed with forests, and abound in metals, particularly iron. These mountains originate no important rivers, but in their vicinity are found the vast lakes of Ladoga and Onega, with many of inferior note.

Valday. The mountains of Valday, (anciently mons Alaunus) which are crossed in travelling from Petersburgh to Moscow, are supposed to be a continuation of the Olonetz chain. These are less a series of mountains, than a table land of great extent, though of slight elevation; for none of them rises above the elevation of 1200 feet. The town of Valday, from which they derive their name, is situate in the vicinity of the highest part of the

ridge, and yet the country around it, is said to be extremely pleasant. This elevated tract is not much encumbered by forests, but abounds in beautiful meadows and fields; and though its height is so inconsiderable, it gives rise to some of the largest rivers of the empire, such as the Don, the Volga, the Dnieper, and the Oka.

Taurida, or Crimea. The mountains of Taurida, or Crimea extend along the coast of the Euxine, and are said to connect the Carpathian with the Caucasian chain. They are not remarkable for their height, but are very picturesque. Their tops are adorned with the chesnut, the beech, and other trees of the richest foliage; while their vallies produce the olive, the fig, the lotus, and the pomegranate.

Ural or Oural. The Ural, or Oural mountains (anciently montes Rhymnici) are an immense range of mountains, which form the boundary between Europe and Northern Asia, for 1,200 miles, but their greatest height is only 4,500 feet above the level of the sea. They are rich in metals and wood, and are often diversified with fertile vallies and beautiful meadows, in which numerous cattle are bred. Some of their loftiest pinnacles are covered with perpetual snow.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.—CHAP. 1 and 2.

What is the derivation of the word Russia?

How is this vast empire bounded?

What countries constituted Russia at first, and what have been its principal accessions of territory?

What changes has it undergone in its political divisions, and what are the principal of these divisions at the present time?

What is the face of the country in European Russia?

What are the different characters of the steppes?

By what means are these plains frequently set on fire?

Which are the principal mountains of European Russia?

Where do the mountains of Olonetz commence, and how far do they extend?

How are the mountains of Valday situated, what is their character, and what rivers do they originate?

What is the height of the Oural mountains, and to what extent do they separate between Europe and Northern Asia?

What are the principal productions of these mountains?

CHAPTER III.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND CANALS.

Rivers.] The principal rivers of European Russia, which descend to the south, are the Volga, the Don, and the Dnieper. Those that flow in an opposite direction, are the Petshora, the Neva, and the Duna, with their tributaries.

Volga. The Volga is a majestic river, which rises in the Valday mountains, in latitude 57, north, and takes a direction to the east, until it reaches the city of Kazan. It then flows southward, and forms the boundary between Europe and Asia, until at Tzarystyn it turns south-east into Asia, and after a course of 2,700 miles, discharges itself, by numerous mouths, into the Caspian Sea. This noble stream passes through some of the most fertile provinces of the empire, and having no cataracts, it is navigable, even to Twer; but as its waters are known to decrease in depth, it is feared, that at no distant period it will be unable to admit vessels of any considerable size. It receives, in its extensive course, a number of tributary streams, among which, the chief is the Kama, a large river, which derives its waters from the Uralian mountains.

Don, The Don (anciently Tanais) rises from a lake in the government of Tula, and after a winding course of 1,100 miles, empties itself, by three arms, into the sea of Azof. As its bed is free from rocks, and it passes over a level country, its flow is very gentle; but it is liable to violent inundations. In summer it is shallow and full of sand banks, and its mouths are so choked with sand, that only flat-bottomed boats can enter into the sea of Azof. Below Voronetch, the Don freezes about November, but is thawed early in February. The principal rivers which it receives in its course, are the Voronetz, the Donetz, and the Khoper.

Dnieper. The Dnieper, (anciently Borysthenes) rises in a marsh, in the government of Smolensko, and after a

course of 800 miles, falls, by a wide estuary, into the Black Sea. It begins to be navigable above Smolensko; but the navigation is impeded in the lower part of its course by islands, and at one place by a series of cataracts, which continue for nearly 40 miles. Some of the rocks which occasion these falls were blown up, by order of the Empress Catherine II. in 1784, yet without any material benefit to the navigation. The water of this river, though often unfit for domestic use, abounds in various kinds of fish, particularly sturgeon, shad, pike, and carp. The principal tributary streams of the Dnieper are the Beresina, the Priepitz, the Ros, and the Cog. With this river are associated some interesting historical facts. It waters the country to which Ovid was banished, and is celebrated in his mournful elegies. It was descended by the Russians when, under Oleg, they first invaded Constantinople; and near its cataracts, one of their first monarchs, named Sviatoslaf, was defeated and slain. The lower part of its course has been the scene of many sanguinary conflicts, between that people and the Turks; on the upper part, some severe actions took place during Buonaparte's retreat in 1812.

Dniester. The Dniester, (anciently Tyras) has its source in a lake among the Carpathian mountains, in Austrian Gallicia, and falls into the Black Sea, at Akerman. Its navigation, which was rather dangerous, has been greatly improved by the Russian government, and now forms an important medium of commerce between Poland and Odessa. This river was formerly the boundary between Russian and European Turkey.

Dwina. The Dwina is formed by the union of the rivers Juchona and Jug, near the town of Ustjug, in the government of Vologda, and passing by Archangel, falls, by two arms, into the White Sea. It is both broad and deep, but the mouths are so choked with mud, that large vessels enter it with difficulty. The Dwina has the honour of having given reception, in 1553, to the first English ship that ever came to Russia.

Neva. The Neva, which pervades the city of Petersburgh, is only about 40 miles in length, from its source in the lake Ladoga, to its entrance into the gulf

of Finland; but its breadth and depth are considerable, and it is subject to great floods.

The Duna. This river rises in a lake of the same name, in the government of Twer, not far from the sources of the Volga, and having received several smaller rivers in its course, falls into the gulf of Riga, at Dunamunde, a few miles below Riga. It is navigable throughout the greater part of its course, but has several falls, the shooting of which is attended with great difficulty and danger. One of these, which occurs near to Seleburg, is thus described. A concealed point of rock threatens with imminent destruction all the floats, and vessels that approach it, and numbers, at low water, perish without redemption. The steersman, notwithstanding he has taken a pilot on board, must exert the utmost caution. The noise of the water allowing no oral commands, directions are usually given by the hand, or by waving the cap; and the seamen, just before they arrive at the verge of the precipice, fall down on their knees, and pray. The frequent disasters that happen here are very profitable to the Courland boors, that lurk in the adjacent caverns, for the purpose of plundering the wrecks. The Duna communicates with the lake of Ladoga, and with St. Petersburgh, by a canal, which joins it to the Louat.

Cara. The Cara is an inconsiderable stream, but is remarkable as forming, for the space of 140 miles, the boundary between Europe and Asia, from the termination of the Uralian mountains, to the sea of Cara-skoi.

Lakes. European Russia contains several lakes, some of which are of considerable extent.

Ladoga. The lake Ladoga is 130 miles in length, about 75 broad, and is one of the largest in Europe. Its fishery is of little importance; but its northern shores furnish a beautiful and durable kind of marble, which is highly valued at Petersburg.

Onega. This lake is 130 miles in length, and from 70 to 80 in breadth. It contains a few islands of which the basis is marble: its waters are beautifully clear, and abound in fish.

Ilmen. Near to this lake, which is the source of the Volkof, stands the ancient and famous city of Novogorod.

Peipus. This lake is the source of the river Narva. It contains a few small islands, one of which has three villages upon it, and is furnished with forests. The Peipus abounds in fish, the principal of which are a species of herring, and barbel.

Bielo-Ozero, or White Lake. The White Lake, which is about 30 miles long and 18 broad, is supposed to derive its name from the white foam which in stormy weather appears upon the surface of its waters, and is occasioned by the agitation of the clay, which forms a large part of its bed.

Canals. Inland Navigation is carried through a great extent in Russia; for it is possible to convey goods by water 4470 miles, from the frontiers of China to Petersburgh, with an interruption of only about 60 miles; and from Astrachan through a tract of 1434 miles.

The water-communication between Astrachan and Petersburgh, or between the Caspian and the Baltic, is formed by means of the celebrated canal of Vishnei-Voloshok. This great work, begun and completed under Peter the Great, was considerably improved by Catherine II. and vessels now reach Petersburgh in less than half the time which they formerly employed.

The Ladoga Canal was begun in 1718, by order of Peter, and finished during the reign of the Empress Anne. It now reaches without interruption, from the Volkof to the Neva. The length is 67½ miles, and the breadth 70 feet; it is supplied by the Volkof, and eight rivulets.

A canal also leads from Moscow to the Don, and opens a communication with the Black Sea.

The grand project of uniting the Caspian and the Baltic with the Black Sea, by the junction of the Don and Volga, was planned by Peter the Great. In the province of Astrachan these two rivers are separated by a space of only forty miles; and two rivulets, one of which falls into the Don, and the other into the Volga,

are distant from one another, only 5 miles. Could these two rivulets be rendered navigable, and united by a canal, the Black Sea would be joined with the Caspian and the Baltic. With this view, Peter sent Perry, an English Engineer, to the spot, and the canal was begun under his direction; but the scheme was soon abandoned, from an idea that it was not practicable. It being revived, however, by the late Empress, Professor Lovitz was entrusted with the execution. Having taken a level of the ground, he traced out the canal; when, in 1744, he was wantonly murdered, by an impostor named Pugatchef.

Other canals have been projected, but land carriage in Russia being extremely cheap and easy, the advantages resulting from their formation, would scarcely be equivalent to their expence.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

Which are the principal rivers of Russia, and in what directions do they flow?

Where does the Volga rise, what is the length of its course, and in what sea does it terminate?

Where is the source of the Don, what is the length of its course, and into what sea does it flow?

What is the nature of its navigation, and what rivers does it receive?

Where does the Dnieper rise, what is the length of its course, and into what sea does it empty itself?

Where does it begin to be navigable, and what impedes its navigation?

What remarkable facts are connected with it?

Where has the Dniester its source, and at what town does it fall into the Black Sea?

What is the character of its navigation, and between what places is it the medium of commerce?

What is remarkable of the river Dwina?

What is the course of the Duna, and how is one of its cataracts described?

What are the names of the principal lakes of European Russia?

To what distance can goods be conveyed by water, in this country?

Which are its principal canals?

What occasioned the failure of a project to join the Black Sea with the Caspian, and the Baltic?

CHAPTER IV.

CLIMATE, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS, AND ANIMALS.

Climate.—With respect to climate, European Russia may be divided into three distinct regions; the cold one from 60 degrees northward; the temperate between 50 and 60 degrees; and the warm from 50 degrees to the southern extremity.

In the first of these regions, the cold of winter is intense, and confines the labours of agriculture to a very limited period. Vegetation is scarcely apparent before June; but then the protracted heat of almost constant day, ripens it into perfection in a short time. Indeed the whole of this region may be said to have only two seasons, the transition from winter to summer, and from summer to winter being so sudden, that spring and autumn are unknown.

In this region, the aurora borealis is frequent, and its coruscations are peculiarly vivid; storms of thunder and lightning are rare, and of short continuance; and hail seldom falls, though hoar frosts are common.

In the northern parts of the second or middle region, the winter is in general very severe; but in its southern provinces, the climate resembles that of France, producing apples, pears, strawberry trees, and melons.

In the third or southern region, the rich productions of warm latitudes meet the traveller's eye, and wine and silk, with a variety and abundance of choice fruits are found. Spring begins with March, and continues to the end of May, when Nature is arrayed in all her charms. In June, the powerful influence of the sun changes the scene; the plains are stripped of their verdure, the springs and the rivers are dried, and September is sometimes far advanced before the fierceness of the heat abates. One of the most salubrious departments of this region, is the semicircular vale, formed by the Tauridan mountains, along the shores of the Black Sea. In this delightful clime, winter is scarcely perceived, the primroses and *spring-saffron bloom* in January, and the oak

often retains its foliage through the year. Here, on all sides, thrive and flourish in open air the ever-verdant laurel, the olive tree, the fig, the lotus, and the pomegranate: with the turpentine tree, the tan-bark tree, the manna-bearing ash, and the strawberry tree from Asia Minor. This last covers the steepest cliffs of the shore, and adorns them in winter by its perpetual foliage, and the red bark of its thick stem. The forests consist of fruit-trees of every kind, or rather form a large orchard left entirely to itself. Without the assistance of art, the wild or planted vine-stems climb the highest trees, and, twining with the flowery five-leaved ivy, form festoons and hedges. The contrast of the orchards and the rich verdure, with the beautiful wildness of the adjacent mountains and rocks; the natural fountains and cascades, with their rushing waters; the near view of the sea, where the eye wanders over the unbounded prospect; the turf-covered cots, and roving flocks of the Tartars: all combine to form a most enchanting picture.

In almost all parts of European Russia, except on the borders of the gulph of Finland, and near the mouths of the rivers which fall into the Black Sea, the climate is dry and healthful.

Vegetable productions.] Immense forests every where abound in the Russian dominions, and are, perhaps, unequalled in the old world. The Valchonskoi forest, through which the road lies from Viesma to Moscow, stretches on all sides to a great distance; many of the northern regions are covered with forests; and even the road from Petersburgh to Moscow, runs through a succession of woods. The fir, the pine, and the black pine, are the prevailing trees in the northern parts. On the Ural mountains, the Siberian cedar grows in abundance, and is cut down by the inhabitants for the sake of its cones, which yield an excellent oil. The larch, which thrives in the north, is employed in ship building on the sea coasts, and affords both turpentine and charcoal. In addition to these trees, the beech, the elm, the maple, and the poplar, grow in the southern regions. The birch is of various use. Its bark is employed in tanning, and the preparation of tar; its leaves afford a

yellow dye, its sap a liquor called birch wine, and its wood not only furnishes fuel, but is converted into domestic vessels. The linden is scarcely less valuable. The outer bark is manufactured into carriages, baskets, trunks, and a covering for cottages; and the inner rind into mats. The rind of its young shoots is platted into shoes for the boors; its wood is wrought into canoes, and its blossoms afford nourishment to bees.

Agriculture, in Russia, is in a very rude and imperfect state. The profusion with which Providence has dispensed its gifts to this country, forms a striking contrast with the indolence and poverty of its inhabitants. Even their common implements of husbandry are of the most awkward and inconvenient description. The harrow consists of short wooden pegs, driven into thin laths, woven together with willows; the use of the roller is hardly known; and a crooked stick often serves as a flail. To drain moist lands, or swamps, is an object of little or no attention, though they are both numerous and prejudicial, and might be converted into luxuriant corn-fields. The steppe lands are employed for a short time, without manure, and then forsaken. When a boor has fixed on a piece of forest-land for the purpose of making it arable, he cuts down not only the bushes and young wood, but trees of the most venerable growth; or, if he should not succeed in felling these, he strips them of their bark, and kindles the brushwood under them. No idea is formed of the utility of artificial manure, and the land is seldom clean harrowed.

The objects of Russian agriculture are various. Oats, rye, wheat, and barley, are raised in considerable quantities. Rice is grown in some of the southern districts; but hemp and flax, which in some places grow wild, are the principal objects of culture. Hops and tobacco are also cultivated. In the kitchen garden, are produced cabbage, which is used to make sour krout; turnips, which are often substituted for bread; beans, onions, and other vegetables, which are grown in Great Britain and Ireland. Potatoes are unaccountably neglected.

The region which lies between 50 and 60 degrees, is plentifully stored with fruit trees and shrubs; and vast orchards of apple, pear, plum, and cherry trees appear.

The Kirifskoi apple, which is of an agreeable flavour, and will keep for a long time, often grows to the weight of three, and sometimes four pounds. Various berries are annually gathered in great quantities, and eaten either raw or preserved. Among these are cranberries, which are both wild and cultivated, and currants, some of which grow to the size of an ordinary cherry, gooseberries, strawberries, &c. &c.

The fruits of the south, include chesnuts, almonds, pomegranates, olives, figs, peaches, apricots, and mulberries, with grapes and other fruits of the more southern climes. The vine grows wild in some districts, and is cultivated though imperfectly, in the governments of Caucasus and Taurida, as well as among the Cossacks of the Don.

Animals.] Cattle abound in all parts of Russia, and are frequently left to roam the fields and forests for their food. Buffaloes are said to be numerous in the south. The sheep in the northern provinces are of a middle size, with short tails, and coarse wool; those of the south are long-tailed, and their wool is of a superior texture. The province of Taurida is the principal sheep country. A common Tartar of this district often possesses 1000 sheep; while with his wealthy neighbour, 50,000 of these useful animals, are said to be no unusual flock. The goat is a common domestic animal, and is kept in herds by the Kirghises and Colmacks. The fleeces of a peculiar species of them, which is bred in Taurida, are said to exceed the finest wool, both in silkiness and elasticity.

The Russian horses have a ram-like head, and a long meagre neck; but they are of a compact form, and are both hardy and active. Those of Tartary are of acknowledged excellence, and have been improved by a mixture with the Turkish and Arabian breeds. The Russian cavalry is chiefly composed of Lithuanian and Livonian horses, which are accounted the finest in the empire. The ass, with the camel and dromedary, is sometimes employed in the southern provinces for domestic purposes. Swine abound throughout European

Russia; and the reindeer is not unknown in the most northern governments.

Among the wild animals are the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the deer, the elk, the antelope, and many other smaller species. Hares and rabbits are common to all parts. The wild boar is found on the steppes of the Volga, and the borders of the Uralian forests; and so copiously does this animal feed, that he often weighs more than six hundred pounds. His flesh is esteemed a great delicacy, but he is seldom killed without danger.

Russia possesses nearly all the species of birds which are to be found in Europe. The number of wild fowl that flock to the desolate steppes, marshes, and forests, is almost incredible. In proof of their abundance, it is stated that a bustard weighing 20 lbs. may be bought for a few pence; while other game is equally plentiful.

Fish of various kinds swarm the lakes, coasts, and rivers of European Russia, and afford a considerable commerce, as well as employment and subsistence to a great number of its inhabitants. The sturgeon is caught in the Volga and some of the other rivers, in high perfection. The sterlet is also common in the lakes and rivers; and a rich salmon is peculiar to the Kama, a stream which has been before mentioned. It is from three to four feet in length. It is remarkable that the eel is not found either in the Volga, or in the rivers east of it; while the herring and seal are found in some of the lakes, and even the rivers.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

Into what regions, with respect to climate, may European Russia be divided?

What is the peculiar character of each of these regions?

How is the vale of Taurida described?

What are the predominant features of the climate of European Russia?

Is this country remarkable for its forests?

Which are the prevailing trees in the north, and which in the south?

What are the uses of the birch and linden trees?

In what state is agriculture in European Russia?

What are the common implements of husbandry?

How does a *Russian boor prepare* the land for cultivation?

Which are the principal vegetables cultivated in European Russia?

What region of this country is remarkble for fruit trees, and shrubs?

Which are the principal fruits of the south?

In what governments is the vine cultivated?

Are cattle numerous in European Russia?

Where is the principal sheep district in this country, and what is the size of its flocks?

For what are the Tauridan goats remarkable?

What is the form of the Russian horses, and where are the finest of them bred?

What other tame animals are found in European Russia?

Which are the principal wild animals of this country?

Are its species of birds numerous?

What proof can be adduced of the abundance of its wild fowl?

Which are the principal species of fish that its lakes and rivers produce?

CHAPTER V.

CITIES AND EDIFICES.

Petersburgh.] Petersburgh is in the province of Ingria, and is the capital of the Empire. This city is the wonderful creation of the last century, and is a monument of the triumph of art over nature. It consisted, in 1703, of a few fishermen's huts, in the midst of a barren morass, but it now contains more than 300,000 inhabitants, and is one of the most splendid, as well as extensive cities in the world.

Peter the Great, having wrested Ingria from Sweden, determined to erect a small fortress on an island in the mouth of the Neva, both to protect his conquests, and to open new channels of commerce. This fortress was begun on the 16th of May, 1703; and notwithstanding the marshy nature of the ground, and the inexperience of the workmen, a small citadel was soon completed. The labourers were not even furnished with the necessary tools;* and yet the work went on with such expedition, that the fortress was raised in less than five months.

* The earth, on account of its scarcity, was for the most part carried by the labourers in the skirts of their clothes, and in bags made of rags and old mats.

Within the fortress, a few wooden habitations were raised. For his own immediate abode, Peter ordered, at the commencement of 1703, a small hut to be erected in an adjacent island, which he called the island of St. Petersburgh, and from which the new metropolis has derived its name. Near it was soon afterwards constructed another wooden habitation, in which Prince Mentchikof resided, and gave audience to foreign ministers. At a small distance was an Inn, much frequented by the courtiers and persons of all ranks; to which Peter repaired on Sundays after divine service, and caroused with his suite and others.

On the 30th of May, 1706, Peter demolished the small citadel, and began the foundation of the new fortress on the same spot. In 1710 Count Golovkin erected the first edifice of brick, and in the following year, the Tzar, with his own hand, laid the foundation of a house, to be erected with the same materials. From these small and feeble beginnings, rose the present metropolis of Russia; and in less than nine years, the seat of empire was removed from Moscow to Petersburgh.

The despotic authority and zeal of Peter for the improvement of his new capital, will appear from his mandates. In 1714, he enjoined that all buildings upon the island of St. Petersburgh, and in the Admiralty quarter, particularly those on the banks of the Neva, should be constructed after the German manner, with timber and brick; and that the nobility and principal merchants should be obliged to have houses in Petersburgh. He also commanded, that every large vessel navigating to the city, should bring thirty stones, every small one ten, and every peasant's waggon three, towards the construction of the bridges and other public works; and that the roofs of the houses should be no longer covered with birch planks and bark, so dangerous in cases of fire, but with tiles or clods of earth. In 1716, a regular plan for the new city was approved by Peter; the principal part of the new metropolis was to be situated in the Vassili-Ostrof: and in imitation of the Dutch towns, canals were to be cut through the principal streets, and lined with avenues of trees; but it was never *carried into* execution; and under the Em-

press Anne, the imperial residence was removed to the Admiralty quarter. The nobility soon followed the example of the sovereign; and, excepting some public edifices, and the row of houses fronting the Neva, the Vassili-Ostrof is the worst part of this city, and contains more wooden buildings than all the other quarters.

The form of Petersburgh is nearly circular; its diameter being about four miles. The Neva, flowing from east to west, divides it into two parts, of which the largest is on the south side of the river. The part on the north side is formed into two divisions by a branch of the Neva, which flows to the north-west.* The city has also five artificial divisions, viz. 1. The Admiralty, or central quarter; 2. The Vassili-Ostrof, or is land; 3. The island of St. Petersburgh; 4. The district of Wiburgh; and 5. The Foundry district.

The Admiralty, or central quarter, is the most fashionable part of the city. Here are the winter palace of the Tzar, above twenty of the most distinguished public buildings, and the residences of the principal merchants. The streets are elegant, and three of them, which are perfectly straight, are each two miles in length.

The Vassili-Ostrof is the seat of commerce, containing on the bank of the river, the quay for merchandize, and, toward the sea, the harbour for galleys. Here are the exchange, and the custom house; the academy of sciences, and a considerable number of churches.

The Petersburgh quarter comprises several islands. It is deficient in public buildings, but the streets are spacious and regular. Its most striking object is the citadel.

The Wiburgh quarter contains, beside the street along the right bank of the Neva, the cottages of the peasantry; there are also two grand mansions within its precincts, besides the great military hospital, founded by Peter the Great, and some other public buildings of less magnitude. It also contains a wharf for merchant-ships.

The Foundry division is so called from a foundry es-

* The course of the Neva, through St. Petersburgh, is nearly as straight as that of the Thames, through London. It is in most places broader than the *Thames, and is deep and rapid*, with water as clear as crystal.

tablished there. It contains the institute of Catherine, for the education of young ladies, the convent of the resurrection, for the same purpose, the great magazine, for spirituous liquors and salt, the arsenal, and the Taurida palace. The convent of St. Alexander Newsky also adorns this quarter.

These five districts are subdivided into eleven smaller divisions, over which is placed a major of police, assisted by several subordinate officers.

The streets of St. Petersburgh are for the most part paved with stone; but a few of them are still suffered to remain floored with planks. The celebrated street called the Grand Perspective, runs the length of about four miles, in a direct line, from the church of the Admiralty, from which the principal streets of that quarter radiate to the monastery of St. Alexander Newsky. It is lined with noble houses and elegant churches; but the linden trees which enclose the broad foot-path in the middle, and which, from the want of soil and moisture, have a feeble and uninteresting appearance, diminish the beauty of the perspective.

The houses of St. Petersburgh are built of stone, or of brick stuccoed over, which has the same appearance. Timber houses are only perceived in a few of the distant suburbs of the Litteinoï, and Narfskoi districts, or in the more remote parts of the Vassiliefskoi and Peterbourskoi Islands. Although higher than the houses in London, those of St. Petersburgh have seldom more than two stories, the elevation of each of which is consequently considerable. They are frequently ornamented with handsome balconies, and light balustrades surround the flat roofs, which are generally covered with sheet iron, painted green or red. Columns are profusely introduced; but they are seldom employed for the construction of porticos before the principal entrance.

It would be tedious to attempt a particular description of the various embellishments of Petersburgh, but a few of them are entitled to particular attention.

The celebrated statue of Peter the Great exceeds every other monument of the kind that has ever been known. The granite rock, which serves as a pedestal, after having been freed from its superfluous parts, was

38 feet in length, 21 in breadth, and the same in height; and its weight, by calculation, 3,200,000 pounds. This ponderous stone was found in a marshy forest, about 9 miles from Petersburgh, and was conveyed to the place of its destination, partly by land, and partly by water, over hills and bogs, and upon the river Neva, by windlasses and nautical machines. The colossal figure, in bronze, of the Monarch is eleven feet high; the dress is in the old Russian style, with half boots, whiskers, and cropped hair; the head is encircled with a crown of laurel, and the right arm extended in the act of blessing or command. The head is esteemed a correct likeness, and the whole attitude is noble, and full of expression. The horse, which is 17 feet high, is executed in high perfection, gallopping up the rock and treading with his hind leg on a serpent; the whole being emblematical of the difficulties which Peter had to encounter in civilizing his empire. On the side of the pedestal facing the Admiralty, is this inscription in the Russian language: *Petra provoma, Ekatarina utoraia;* and on the side toward the Senate, the same in Latin, *Petro Primo, Catharina Secunda,** 1782.

The church of Notre Dame was originally built in 1734, by the Empress Anne; the dome was then of wood, and its architecture ill corresponded with that of the more modern edifices erected near it. Being considered as the cathedral church of Petersburgh, in which the Russian monarchs returned thanks for the prosperous events of their reign, it was determined to rebuild it in a style of appropriate grandeur and magnificence. Accordingly, the Emperor Paul, in 1800, ordered plans for the purpose to be submitted to him; but as his death soon after occurred, the execution devolved on Alexander. Ten years were employed on the building, and it was consecrated on the 15th of September, 1811. In every respect it is splendid and rich: the door before the principal altar, and the balustrade around it, are of massy silver. The jaspers and marbles of Olonetz are profusely employed, both in the form of Mosaic and in other ornaments. Its exterior is adorned with a colon-

* Catherine the Second, to Peter the First.

nade of one hundred and fifty columns of the Corinthian order, whose base and chapiters are of cast iron. The portico is adorned with two bronze statues of the archangels, Gabriel and Michael. The principal external door is likewise of bronze, and is a perfect copy of the famous door of the cathedral of Florence. Every article and material employed in the construction and ornamenting of this church, is of native production; and almost all the artists, architects, painters, and sculptors, were Russians. It is rich in precious stones, and in gold and silver vessels, the gifts of the imperial family.

The marble palace. Few buildings surpass this in magnificence. It is of a quadrangular form, and rises in three lofty stories; the lowermost is of granite, and the superstructure of grey marble, decorated with columns and pilasters of reddish marble. The window-frames are of gilt brass; the roof rests on iron bars, and is covered with sheet copper. Its interior is peculiarly rich, and is said to realize all that a poetic imagination has feigned in the tales of romance. This palace was originally built for Gregory Orloff, one of the favourites of Catherine II. and at his death reverted to that empress. Paul, her successor, assigned it to Stanislaus Poniatowsky, king of Poland for his residence; and that unfortunate monarch there terminated his troublesome life.

Imperial Winter Palace. This structure is more remarkable for its size than its architecture. It is 450 feet long, 380 broad, and 70 high; and in it is deposited an immense variety of curious and costly works of all descriptions. Connected with it, by means of a covered gallery, is the hermitage, a spacious edifice so called from its being the scene of imperial retirement; it was built by Catherine II. and contains a valuable collection of paintings, a library, and a cabinet of natural history.

Taurida palace. This palace is described by travellers in terms of enthusiastic admiration. Before you enter the hall or gallery of the palace, you pass through a saloon of great magnitude, which is supported by immense white pillars, and ornamented with ancient candelabrums, sarcophaguses, busts, vases, and other

decorations of the classic ages. With these are mingled, in monstrous association, modern, ill-fashioned Cupids, negroes, fantastic heads, and hideous pedestals of fifty-coloured marbles. On leaving this enormous vestibule, the hall opens at once upon the eye, and excites an emotion which must be felt, to be imagined. A double range of Ionic columns rise like a forest on either side, and when you look up to their capitals, the height is so great as almost to pain the eye. But there the sublimity of this gigantic chamber ceases. A contemptible, flat ceiling, with little insignificant urns in a compressed shape, finish most abruptly what might otherwise have been perfection. Had it been arched, the effect would have been unequalled in Europe. Between the pillars are placed statues, most of them modern and of indifferent merit. Some fine imitations of the Barberini and other celebrated vases, are mixed with them; and at each end of the gallery, at some distance from the wall, are excellent copies of the Laocoon and the Cleopatra. Through the long avenue of columns, opens to view a most delightful scene,—a spot dedicated to perpetual summer. The garden is very extensive; but the effect of extent is greatly aided by the winding and undulating walks, which are gravelled or neatly turfed, and lined with roses and other flowers, leading amid blooming hedges and fruit trees, chiefly orange-trees of an enormous size, planted in tubs sunk into the earth, and concealed by fine mould. As the roof, from the size of the garden, could not be supported without pillars, these are disguised under the form of palm trees. The heat is maintained by concealed flues in the walls and pillars, and under the earth are conveyed leaden pipes filled with boiling water. The whole of the pavilion is lighted by lofty windows; and from the ceiling are suspended several magnificent lustres of the richest cut-glass. Here, while the polar winter is raging without, may be seen the foliage and inhaled the fragrance of an Arabian grove, in the soft climate of an Italian spring. The novel and voluptuous luxuriance of this green, refreshing spectacle, seen through the colonnade of massy white pillars, and reflected by *vast mirrors* is matchless.

In this palace, Prince Potemkin, soon after his return from the conquest of the Crimea, gave the most splendid entertainment to his imperial mistress, ever recorded since the days of Roman luxury. In the colossal hall, the walls of which were brilliantly illuminated, were spread tables laden with the delicacies of every region, and the most costly wines. A prodigious cistern of solid silver, containing sterlet soup, is said alone to have cost 10,000 rubles. The orchestra exceeded 600 vocal and instrumental performers; and the banquet was succeeded by a series of magnificent exhibitions, scenic and theatric, which lasted till midnight. In the centre of the pavilion, on a lofty pedestal, the Prince had caused to be erected a statue of his benefactress, cut in Carrara marble. This statue was turned out of the palace by her unhappy son, Paul. Instigated, probably, by hatred to the memory of Potemkin, that monarch converted this palace into barracks, and the hall, pavilion, and saloon into a riding-school for his troops!

The Palais Michel derives its name from the Grand Duke Michel, for whom it was erected by his late brother, the emperor Alexander. This magnificent structure is 364 feet in length, and consists of a main body, and two projecting wings. The former is united to the latter by pavilions, without any interruption in the line of communication. These pavilions project several feet beyond the main building, and form with it a spacious court, which is separated from the street by a lofty railing of cast iron, connected by lofty pillars of the finest workmanship. In the centre of the railing, four square granite piers, surmounted by handsome trophies, form the grand entrance into the court, around which the carriages drive, and set down under a covered archway in front of the ground story. This story, which is very lofty, contains on the left, the ordinary dwelling apartments of the Grand-Duchess, and on the right, those of the Grand-Duke. The windows, by their boldness and size, bespeak the magnitude of those apartments. Upon this story is placed the state floor, of the Corinthian order, with a portico in the centre, of the greatest beauty, and having on each side of it a series of seven handsome pillars, continued as far as the pavilion, with seven lofty

arched windows, one in each of the spaces between the pillars. The portico is surrounded by a well-proportioned pediment, and an elegant balustrade runs along the top of the building, and conceals the roof. On the state floor of the pavilion there are no pillars, and only three windows, the centre of which is arched in the triple Venetian style. The wings are of the Doric order, and rise a little higher than one-half of the elevation of the main building. That part of each wing which fronts the street is very extensive, and presents a colonnade of the utmost elegance of proportions, and neatness of execution. An entrance in the centre of each of these, serves for the more ordinary ingress and egress of the inmates of the palace and their carriages, the grand entrance in the fore-court being only used on state occasions.

In the interior, beauty is united with convenience, and architectural grandeur with utility. It would be difficult to find in any other capital so fine a specimen as this palace offers of a plan, every subdivision of which is adapted to its individual purpose, without injuring the effect of the whole.

The principal vestibule within the grand entrance has a character of grandeur, which the bold double flight of granite steps occupying the centre has a tendency to heighten. A most imposing effect is produced by the grand stair-case, around three sides of which extends a wide gallery with handsome columns, supporting the highly ornamented roof, raised to the height of the entire building. Two statues of superior merit, representing Achilles and Hector, adorn this part of the building, and the lofty walls are of beautiful execution. It must be acknowledged, however, that the general effect is diminished by the slender iron banister, covered with a narrow mahogany hand-rail, which is placed along the stairs, and by the common Argand lamps, which light the staircase at night.

The suite of state rooms is of the most magnificent description. Here the various beauties of architecture are richly displayed; while the ornamental painting is in a style of excellence that has seldom if ever been surpassed. The ceilings are of the finest workmanship.

The floors are inlaid with rose-wood, ebony, mahogany, and other handsome woods from Carelia, as well as from foreign parts. The walls of the largest rooms are of scagliola*, imitating the yellow siena, the porto venere, the verde antico, or the finest-polished and white Carrara marble. In most of these rooms, columns or pilasters, in imitation of the same marbles, have been introduced, surmounted by gilt capitals. In the smaller apartments, costly hangings and draperies cover the walls; and in all of them, mirrors of surprising magnitude, pier-tables, vases, and superb candelabra, and rich carpets, lackered doors, brilliant, polished, carved, and divided by gilded frames into panels, and damask curtains, impart a character of splendour to the whole.

The Great Hall is that on which the architect has bestowed all his ingenuity and taste. It is an oblong apartment of considerable length, supported at each end by two detached Corinthian columns, and an architrave. The wall opposite to the windows, which is one of the longest sides, has three divisions. The centre, or the largest, is occupied by the chimney, surmounted by a mirror of large dimensions, richly framed. The two side divisions, covered with highly polished scagliola of the purest white, and distinguished by pilasters of the same substance, are embellished by groups of figures, four feet high, and painted in oil by Vighi. These figures, with other panelling ornaments, are painted in the richest gold, on the white scagliola, by the same artist. At each end of the room, another large mirror is placed, to add splendour to the whole; and here also other mythological groups are seen painted in the same style, and on the same ground. The cornice is bold and rich, the white colour of which is relieved in a masterly manner by the gold. The pavement is designed with large roses and octagonal divisions, marked by inlaid woods of very expensive kinds. Between the windows stand very handsome pier-tables, the slabs of which are of a beautifully coloured opaque blue glass, more than an inch in thickness. In the interval between the columns, at each end of the room, is placed a superb

* Scagliola, a kind of marble composition.

sofa, richly embroidered, and the hanging and curtains of the windows, as well as the covers of the arm-chairs, are of corresponding materials. At each end of the front angles, stands a magnificent candelabrum, composed of several pieces of Siberian jasper, of great beauty, and of ormolu very skilfully worked and blended with the jasper.

The apartments of the Grand-Duke are on the principal story, and command from the back of the building a magnificent view of the pleasure-grounds, and the distant Neva. There is nothing remarkable in them, as the prince hates ostentation. In one of them are several large tables, and a plain camp-bed, placed behind a screen, in one of the angles of the room, on which the Grand-Duke generally sleeps. In this, as well as in the whole suite of rooms, including a well-assorted and neat library, every thing bespeaks the greatest simplicity. Where, however, the Prince has displayed pomp and parade, is in the suite of apartments immediately below these, and on the ground floor, in which there is a rich and very interesting collection of ancient and modern armour, uniforms, military caps, accoutrements, arms, and every kind of artillery and warlike weapons, kept in the highest order, and neatly arranged, forming a *coup d'œil*, unique of its kind.

This splendid palace was begun in 1819, and completed, and first inhabited about the middle of 1825. The furniture is almost wholly the work of Russians; and the design of every part of it is from the inventive genius of Rossi. Indeed nothing can be more creditable to the mechanical skill and handicraft of the Russians, than the vast and rich assemblage of a variety of objects contained in this palace.

On the day of its inauguration, the late Emperor, standing at the great entrance door, under the portico, received his Imperial brother, and having offered him bread and salt on a golden salver, according to the ancient manner of the Russians, welcomed him to a mansion, which was to be henceforward his own.

The Ice Palace. This palace, though it was of ephemeral duration, is entitled to notice on account of the ingenuity of its construction. It was erected in 1740,

at the celebration of the marriage of Prince Galitzin, on a site between the imperial winter palace, and the Admiralty; and was composed of blocks of ice, from two to three feet thick, water being poured between them, which acted as a cement, and hardened the whole into one immense mass of ice. This remarkable edifice was formed according to the strictest rules of art; and was adorned with a portico, columns, and statues. It consisted of a single story, the front of which was provided with a door and fourteen windows; the frames of the latter, as well as the panes, being all formed of ice. The sides of the doors and of the windows were painted in imitation of green marble. On each side of the door was a dolphin, from the mouths of which, by means of naphtha, volumes of flames were emitted in the evening. Next to them were two mortars, equal to eighty-pounders, from which many bombs were thrown, a quarter of a pound of powder being used for each charge. On each side of the mortars stood three cannons, equal to three-pounders, mounted upon carriages, and with wheels, which were often used. In the presence of a number of persons attached to the court, a bullet was driven through a board two inches thick, at the distance of sixty paces, by one of these cannon, a quarter of a pound of powder being also used for the charge. The interior of the edifice had no ceiling, and consisted of a lobby and two large apartments, one on each side, which were well furnished, and painted in the most elegant manner, though formed merely of ice. Tables, chairs, statues, looking-glasses, candlesticks, watches, and other ornaments, besides tea-dishes, tumblers, wine-glasses, and even plates with provisions, were seen in one apartment, also formed of ice, and painted of their natural colours; while in the other were to be seen a state bed, with curtains, bed, pillows, and bed-clothes, two pairs of slippers, and two night-caps of the same cold material. Behind the cannon, the mortars, and the dolphins, stretched a low balustrade. On each side of the building was a small entrance. Here were pots with flowers and orange-trees, partly formed of ice, and partly natural, on which birds sat. Beyond these were erected two icy pyramids. On the right of one them stood an elephant, which was

hollow, and so contrived as to throw out burning naphtha; while a person within it, by means of a tube, imitated the natural cries of the animal. On the left of the other pyramid, was seen the never-failing concomitant of all princely dwellings in Russia, a *banya*, or bath, apparently formed of balks, which is said to have been sometimes heated, and even to have been appropriated to use.

The appearance of the ice palace, it is said was remarkably splendid when lighted up in the evening with numerous candles. Amusing transparencies were usually suspended in the windows, to increase the effect; and the emission of flames by the dolphins and the elephant, all tended to excite greater surprise, while the people beheld the crystalline mass.

Thus, there wanted not, to carry on the parallel between this palace and the magical edifice which Milton describes,

> ——many a row
> Of starry lamps and blazing cressets, fed
> With naphtha and asphaltus, yielding light
> As from a sky. The hasty multitude
> Admiring entered; and the work some praise,
> And some the architect.

Crowds of visiters were continually seen around this fantastic and unique construction, which remained entire from the beginning of January, almost to the middle of March. The glassy fabric then began to melt, and was soon afterwards broken into pieces, and the ruins were conveyed to the imperial cellar.

The New Bank. This is, perhaps, the most elegant building in Petersburgh. Its architecture is simple, but the workmanship is of the first order: its roof is covered with plates of iron. It consists of three compartments: two covered corridors connecting the main building with the side.

Quay. A wall, parapet, and pavement, of hewn granite, stretch along the south bank of the river for three miles. This, which forms the quay, is one of the most striking and stupendous works by which this remarkable city is characterised.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

In what year, and by whom, was Petersburgh founded?

What circumstances are related of the commencement of this city?

What means did Peter use to promote its enlargement and improvement?

Of what form is Petersburgh, and by what river is it divided?

What are the five artificial divisions of this city?

Whence do its principal streets radiate, and what account is given of the street called the Grand Perspective?

Of what materials are the houses of Petersburgh built, what is their height, and how are they ornamented?

Where was the pedestal of the statue of Peter the Great procured, what were its dimensions, and how was it conveyed to Petersburgh?

How high is the statue, and in what dress and attitude is the monarch represented?

Who caused this stupendous monument to be erected, and what inscription is engraven upon it?

By whom, and in what year, was the church of Notre Dame originally built?

Who rebuilt this structure, and for what is it remarkable?

What are the form and height of the marble palace, and of what are its different stories composed?

What are its particular ornaments, for whom was it erected, and who ended his miserable existence in one of its apartments?

How is the Tauridan palace described?

Who gave a splendid entertainment in it?

Who converted this magnificent structure into barracks and a riding school?

From whom does the Palais Michel derive its name, and by whom was it erected?

What are its length, and its principal divisions?

How are its ground story, and entrances described?

What are the excellencies of the interior of this splendid edifice?

How are the state rooms, and great hall adorned?

What is the character of the apartments of the Grand-duke?

When, and on what occasion, was the Ice Palace erected?

What was the plan of its erection?

Of what did the interior of this singular building consist, and what was its furniture?

What was the appearance of the Ice Palace in an evening, and how long did this ingenious fabric continue?

What kind of a building is the new bank at Petersburgh?

How is the quay on the bank of the Neva formed?

CHAPTER VI.

BRIDGES, CANALS, FLOODS, &c.

Bridges, &c.] The mechanism of the bridges over the Neva is so simple, that they can be taken to pieces in less than two hours, and this is done as soon as the floating ice at the beginning of the winter comes down: when the ice is fixed, they are again put up; and are taken down a second time at the breaking up of the ice in spring. But the ice, which continues firm, and capable of supporting any weight for five or six months, forms the principal communication in winter between the different quarters. Several plans have been projected for the erection of a permanent bridge across the Neva, but the practicability of such a measure seems doubtful. The triangle of edifices on the left side of the Neva is intersected by three principal canals, forming irregular semicircles, one within another. The Moika forms the smallest semicircle; the Katarina Canal embraces this, and the Fontanka includes both.

The situation of St. Petersburgh, in the gulf of Finland, and on the banks of the Neva, though very favourable for commerce, exposes it to dreadful inundations. The west, or south-west wind, blowing directly from the gulf, prevents the exit of the Neva, and occasions a vast accumulation of water. If the westerly wind continues for some time, the water rises ten feet above its level; at five feet, it overflows only the western part of the town, in those places where there is no embankment; but only the easternmost parts escape when the waters rise to ten feet. These floods, however, are in general less destructive than formerly, owing, principally, to the gradual raising of the ground, by buildings and other causes. The most ancient inundation on record was previous to the building of this city, in 1691. The waters at that period seem to have risen usually, every five years. On the 1st of November, 1726, the waters rose eight feet two inches; on the 2nd of October, 1755,

eight feet five inches. On September the 10th, 1777, there was a dreadful flood, in which the Vassili-Ostrof, and the island of St. Petersburgh, particularly suffered. For a short time, the river rose ten feet above its ordinary level.

In consequence of the inundation, precautionary measures were taken, to warn the inhabitants of the approaching evil: the height of the water was regularly marked. Whenever it rose above its banks at the mouth of the great Neva, notice was given by three distinct firings of cannon, repeated at intervals as the danger increased: five cannons were also fired from the Admiralty battery; and from its steeple, by day, four white flags were displayed; by night, four lanterns, the bells of the churches tolling at the same time.

These precautions, however, but ill prepared this city for a most dreadful calamity in November, 1824. On the night of the 10th of that month, so strong a westerly wind impeded the current from the Ladoga lake, that the Neva and the canals rose to an unusual height, and lamps were hung out around the Admiralty steeple, to warn people not to sleep in their lowest apartments,—a signal to which custom had familiarised them. Early on the next day, the waters had so risen, that the white flag was hung out, and guns were fired, to admonish the city of its danger. It was soon too apparent that these admonitions were necessary; the Neva rose so as to inundate the whole city, and the confusion and destruction became indescribable. Vehicles of all descriptions were now seen hurrying homewards, or to the bridges, or to some rising ground, with the water over the wheels; people were seen wading through it up to their waists; in a short time, only a courier here and there appeared on horseback, their horses scarcely able to keep their heads above the water. At one o'clock on the 19th, nothing was to be seen on the Grand Place and in the streets, but wooden barks, empty boats, sentry-boxes, timber, furniture washed from the houses, bread, and various kinds of provisions, all floating in confused masses on the boisterous surface; wooden houses were seen floating up the river, most of the inhabitants of which had perished! Even the church-

yards experienced an additional desolation. In the Smolensko quarter of the town, the coffins were washed out of their graves, and the dead bodies were cast up from their quiet habitations. Numbers had struggled up pillars, to the tops of the trees, and on the highest eminences, and were gradually saved from the fate of their companions by a few boats, which literally plied above the roofs of many houses! On Saturday the 20th, at daybreak, the Neva was blocked up with timber, broken barges, galliots, and vessels of various descriptions, which had carried with them the pillars and lamp-posts of the houses, and had broken in the windows, and otherwise damaged the edifices on the quay. The large blocks of granite, of which the parapet is composed, were thrown over. The St. Isaac's, the Toochkoff, and summer-garden bridges, were broken away from their anchors, and dispersed and destroyed. Many of the streets were so choked up with their timber, as to be almost impassable. In the Vassili-Ostrof quarter, where most of the houses are of wood, the destruction was immense; whole dwellings were hurled from their foundations, some of which were found at a considerable distance from the spot on which they stood, with the dead bodies of their unfortunate inhabitants within; others were broken to pieces on the spot, and some of them so completely destroyed, that not a fragment remained. Wooden barracks with many of their inmates were totally overwhelmed: an entire regiment of carabineers who had climbed up the roofs of one of them, all perished! Eight thousand dead bodies were found, and multitudes carried by the retreating waters down the Gulf of Finland; many, also, were supposed to have remained buried in the ruins of their habitations. Of course, many instances of individual affliction, during the rapidity of the inundation, must have occurred: the following is particularly affecting. A lady and child in a carriage were in a dangerous situation, when a Cossack riding by, observed her distress, and stopped; she entreated him at all hazards to save the child; he took it from the carriage window, but in a few minutes his horse slipped, and they both perished; soon afterwards, the lady, with her servants, horses, and baggage, were

overwhelmed in the waters. The loss of human beings amounted to upwards of 8,000. It may seem almost unfeeling to think of estimating the destruction of property; but many of those who escaped the flood were doomed, in the wreck of their all, to combat the more tedious mortality of famine. All the provisions in the city had been more or less damaged, and the frost had set in so severely, that any supply from sea was considered almost hopeless. The exchange was fitted up to receive 4,000 persons; and such of the public buildings as escaped, were opened for the reception of the homeless. The number of these was beyond calculation. Some faint idea may be formed from the fact, that whole villages in the neighbourhood of the city had almost entirely disappeared: of Emilianowka, not a trace remained! The imperial establishment at Cronstadt suffered greatly, and the fleet sustained irreparable damage; a ship of one hundred guns was left in the middle of one of the principal streets! In the imperial iron manufactory at Catharinoff, 200 workmen perished; and out of eighteen barracks, no less than fifteen were washed away. Such are a few, and but a few, of the results of this dreadful calamity. Alexander was a helpless witness of the scene from his palace windows: what a lesson for human ambition! A few years before, an Emperor as powerful, and as seemingly secure, found the grave of his fortune in the ruins of the other capital. To do him justice, he seems to have been deeply afflicted at the spectacle; but, indeed, what indifferent sojourner would not! A million of roubles was subscribed from the imperial purse, and a committee appointed for their immediate distribution; the reigning family personally visited and succoured the miserable survivors; and all that human charity could do, under such a visitation, was in active progress. The loss of commercial property was immense: of sugar alone, it is said that 10,800,000 pounds were damaged, and nearly half the quantity completely melted.

Weather. The weather at St. Petersburgh is more severe than at any other place in Europe, under the same latitude. On an average of ten years, it is reckoned that *there are here* annually, 97 bright days,

104 rainy, 72 of snow, and 93 unsettled and changeable. The storms are both frequent and violent. It should be remarked, however, that the intense cold is neither unhealthy nor disagreeable; for while it continues, the air is clear and bracing, and its severity is guarded against by warmth of clothing, and the peculiar construction of the houses. The spring is short, as the ice of the Neva never breaks up before the 25th of March, nor later than the 27th of April. The earliest time of its freezing, is the 20th of October; the latest, the 1st of December. It is not till May, however, that the winter can be said to have entirely departed: then the scene undergoes a rapid change, and in a very few days after the snow and frost have disappeared, the fields and the trees appear clad in verdure. The summer, in general, is as mild as in the south of France; but it is much more variable, and very short. To it succeeds the most unpleasant season of the year: the sun is sometimes obscured for several weeks, storms are frequent, and the rain descends in such torrents that the streets are rendered almost impassable. Both this season and the spring prove fatal to many foreigners, or lay the foundation of complaints that afflict them through life.

Population. The population of St. Petersburgh is said to amount to 330,000 souls. Of these it is calculated that six-sevenths are Russians. The Germans are more numerous than any other foreigners. Of the Finns and Ingrians, the original population of the district in which St. Petersburgh is situate, there are not 4,000, and these are either servants in the city, or live in what are called the Finnish villages in the neighbourhood.

Government. The police of this city is well organised, and its plan, like that of Moscow, is altogether military. Its officers are a grand master, two inspectors, eleven presidents of quarters, and a number of captains of sections, with auxiliary lieutenants and watchmen. The houses of these presidents are open at all hours; and adjoining to each quarter is a watch-tower, with a sentinel, to give the alarm in case of fire. Sentinels are stationed in the streets, at intervals of 150 yards each, who, in cases of alarm, communicate with each other by a shrill whistle, with such rapidity, that it is extremely

difficult for a fugitive to escape. This arrangement admirably preserves the order and safety of the streets. The officers of this police are entrusted with several judicial functions, such as adjusting the differences between masters and servants, preventing disturbances on holiday assemblages, and in spring, superintending the breaking up of the ice on the Neva. The various hospitals also are under their superintendance; and strangers are particularly under their cognizance. Every stranger, on his arrival, must deliver his passport at the principal police-office, and must, besides, publish his arrival three separate times in the public papers: a similar process is indispensably necessary on his departure.

The country round Petersburgh is flat, and presents no rural beauties, being in a great measure covered with marshes and forests. Part of these are at present under a process of draining.

The situation of Petersburgh is 435 miles E. by N. of Stockholm, and 1400 E. N. E. of London. Long. 30. 18. 45. E. Lat. 59. 56. 23. N.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

How are the bridges over the Neva constructed?

Which are the principal canals of Petersburgh?

What is the advantage, and what the disadvantage of the situation of this city?

In what way are the floods caused, with which it has been so often visited?

What precautionary measures are taken to warn the inhabitants of their approach?

When did the last of these destructive inundations occur?

Of how many human beings, and of what commercial property, did it occasion the loss?

What were the most striking and affecting circumstances that attended this calamitous event?

What is the general character of the weather at Petersburgh?

How long does the winter continue in that capital?

What are the times of the freezing, and the breaking up of the ice, of the Neva?

Which is the most unpleasant season of the year at Petersburgh?

What is the extent of its population, and in what proportions is it composed of different nations?

How is its police administered, and what judicial offices are assigned to the members of that establishment?

What *is the face of the country* round Petersburgh?

CHAPTER VII.

CITIES AND EDIFICES CONTINUED.

Moscow, or Moskva.] Moscow was founded in the middle of the twelfth century, previously to which, Kief was the capital of Russia. It was enlarged in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries; and taken in 1382, after a short siege, by Tamerlane. It subsequently fell more than once into the hands of the Tartars. They last attacked it in 1571, when they set fire to the city, but were unable to force the Kremlin, to which the Tzar had retired. In 1611, the Poles set the town on fire, so that there was nothing left but the castle. It was for a century and half the sole capital of Russia; and continued to be the frequent residence of the court, until the commencement of the reign of Catherine II.

Moscow is of an oval form, having its length from north to south, and its breadth from east to west. The extent of ground occupied by this city and its suburbs is greater than that of any other city in Europe, its circumference being generally estimated at nearly 27 miles. Much of this large space, however, is left entirely waste, or appropriated to gardens, market-places, or fields for military exercise. The Moskva* flows through the city in a winding channel; but, excepting in spring, it is navigable only for rafts. Towards the middle of the town, it receives a rivulet called the Neglina, and soon after the Jausa, both which rivulets flow in from the north, and in summer, are almost dry.

The approach to Moscow from the north is described as singular. For several versts† nothing is visible, on either side of the road, that indicates the vicinity of a metropolis, more than the wildest parts of Siberia; but not far from the gate stands the Petrovskoi palace, a large building of brick, in the Gothic style, behind which is a village with gardens, from which the inhabi-

* Moskva, a word which is said to signify winding.
† *Three quarters of an English mile.*

tants of the city are in part supplied with vegetables and milk.

The appearance of this immense city, before the catastrophe of 1812, which reduced two-thirds of it to ashes, was truly romantic and picturesque. Some parts of it had the appearance of a sequestered desert, other quarters, that of a populous town; some, of a contemptible village, others, of a great capital. Wretched hovels were blended with large palaces; cottages of one story stood next to the most superb and stately mansions; many brick structures were covered with wooden tops; some of the wooden honses were painted; others had iron doors and roofs. Numerous churches presented themselves in every direction; some with domes of copper, others of tin, gilt or painted green, and many roofed with wood. It seemed as if all the states of Europe and Asia had sent a building by way of representative to Moscow. The pagoda of China, the mosque of Constantinople, the Tartar temple of Bucharia, the cabaret of Spain, and the gorgeous palaces of Greece and Rome, met the eye in every quarter; while travellers and merchants from almost all the civilized countries of the world, and in all their various costumes, were to be seen parading the streets.

The appearance of Moscow, since its burning by the French, has been greatly improved. Within a few months after that disastrous event, orders were given to clear away the rubbish, and begin the rebuilding of the city. Thousands of labourers were employed in every street and lane; and the work proceeded with such astonishing energy and success, that in a few years, Moscow is said to have presented few traces of the destruction that befel it. It is rebuilt with considerable regard to consistency and taste; greater symmetry is observed in the construction of the buildings, and even the houses of the poor have assumed a more modern and cleanly appearance. The strange mixture of magnificent palaces and paltry huts, though still to be remarked in a few places, is no longer conspicuous to the eye of the stranger; but it is to be regretted, that most of the newly-erected dwellings are of wood. A market, held in a large open space in one of

the suburbs, exhibits a curious variety of materials for home building; they consist of trunks of trees, cut, shaped, and morticed into one another. The person who wants a dwelling repairs to the spot, states the number of rooms he requires, examines the different timbers, which are regularly numbered, and bargains for what suits him. The whole is either paid for on the spot, and then taken away by the purchaser, or the seller may agree to transport and erect it. A dwelling is often thus bought, transported, raised, and inhabited, in the space of a week. The streets, like those of Petersburgh, are paved partly with stone, and partly with trunks of trees.

Moscow is divided into five quarters. 1. The Kremlin, or fortress, which is built on an elevation in the centre of the city, and contains the ancient palace of the Tzars, the patriarchal residence, the senate-house, the arsenal, and a crowded assemblage of churches. 2. Kitai-górod, which forms a kind of oblong square on the east side of the Krem'l, and is principally filled with magazines, bazârs, shops, &c. It also contains the printing-office of the Holy Synod, a Greek monastery, and several ancient churches and chapels. 3. Beloi-górod, containing the university, bank, post-office, mint, foundry, several hospitals, and the best looking houses in the city. In this division stands the house of the Bible Society, presented by the Emperor Alexander, in 1817, and which was formerly the State Inquisition. 4. Zemlianoi-górod, which comprises upwards of sixty churches, with a number of palaces, convents, cemetries, &c. 5. Slobodi, the slobodes, or suburbs, and quarters inhabited by German and Tartar settlers. They also contain, hospitals, barracks, and monasteries, in considerable numbers. The whole is surrounded by an earthen rampart, in which are fourteen gates, forming so many entrances to the city. Each division was anciently defended by a wall; but in modern times, and more especially since the French era, the walls have fallen into decay, and it is likely that, in a short time, the three outer divisons will entirely coalesce, and leave the Kremlin with its massy walls, to perpetuate the memory of the far-famed residence of the Patriarchs and *Tzars.*

The Krem'l, although its circumference does not exceed three versts, contains a greater collection of curiosities than all the other parts of the city taken together. It is of a triangular shape, defended by a deep moat and high brick walls, with towers; and is situated on a rising ground, on the left bank of the Moskva.

There are no regular streets in the Krem'l, but three open squares, of a very irregular shape, and abundance of room otherwise, for the numerous carriages and foot-passengers with which, in summer, it is always crowded. The houses have in general stone foundations: in all cases the superstructure consists of brick, stuccoed and painted, generally in the most gaudy colours. None of the houses belong to private individuals; the whole being the property of the crown.

In entering the Krem'l at the right hand from Kitai-górod, the first object that meets the view is the arsenal, which still remains in the same dilapidated state in which it was left by the French. In front, and along the one end of this building, lie between eight and nine hundred pieces of cannon, of different bore, all regularly arranged in rows, and destined to be piled up in the shape of an obelisk, in one of the public squares, to commemorate the victories which Russia obtained over the allied armies, from which they were taken. To the left stands the Senate-house, an immense new building of three stories, containing several departments of the Imperial Senate, in which business is transacted for the convenience of such as live in, or near Moscow. Passing on, there is a full view of the noble edifice of the Treasury, or Imperial Museum, in which are preserved the regalia of the empire, and numerous objects of curiosity. On the same side with the Senate-house, is the Hall of the spiritual consistory, with a church containing some very ancient paintings and inscriptions; and connected with it, in the same line, is a fine modern building, intended to be a metropolitan palace, but at present appropriated as the occasional residence of the Grand-Duke Nicholas.

Almost directly opposite to the palace stands the immense octagonal belfry, known by the name of *Ivan Veliki*, or "John the Great," in which are suspended

upwards of thirty bells, of different sizes, which are rung in peals on holidays, or other public occasions. The largest of these measures forty feet nine inches in circumference, and weighs 127,836 English pounds. Large, however, as this bell is, it is a merely a substitute for one which is still more stupendous, and indisputably the largest in the world. It measures sixty-seven feet four inches in circumference round the lower part of the barrel, by twenty-two feet five inches and a third in height, and is said to weigh 443,772 pounds. In the lower part is a fracture of seven feet two inches and a half in height, which admits of persons entering the bell, when there is no water in it, and surveying the immense metal vault overhead. Its value has been estimated at £65,681; but this estimate is founded merely on the price of ordinary bell-metal; and the real value must be much greater, owing to the profusion of gold and silver, which the nobility and other inhabitants of the city threw into it when casting. According to tradition, it was founded in the same pit where it now lies, and was raised by means of a prodigious wooden appàratus, on a large beam, on which it was suspended; but a fire breaking out some years after in some adjacent part of the Krem'l, it communicated to the wooden building, designed to serve as a belfry, on which the whole of this mountainous mass fell, and sunk to its present situation. It was rung by forty or fifty men, one half on either side. On festivals the peasants visit this bell as they would a sanctuary, regarding it as an act of devotion, and crossing themselves all the way as they descend from and ascend to it.

From Ivan-Veliki the view of the city is the most extensive and picturesque imaginable. Immediately beneath lies the Krem'l, with its two and thirty churches; the magnificent edifices above described, and the ancient palace of the Tzars, with its numerous domes and spires, which, together with those of the cathedral, shine with the most dazzling splendour. From the west flows the Moskva, forming a most beautiful curve in front of the Krem'l, and again pursuing its course amidst innumerable churches and spires, till lost in the distance; while all around lies scattered a prodigious number of

edifices, in all the various styles of Asiatic and European architecture.

The Kremlin contains the cathedral of the Assumption, which is the most splendid church in all Moscow, and the most sacred edifice in the empire. It was built in 1479, on the site of the original edifice, and exhibits a specimen of the Græco-Italian architecture of the fifteenth century. It is loaded with ornaments to a most curious and extravagant degree. On the walls are painted 249 full images, and 2,066 half-lengths and heads, many larger than nature. The quantity of gold-leaf employed in embellishing it, is said to have amounted to 210,000 leaves. From the roof is suspended a large silver chandelier, but it is said to be vastly inferior to that which formerly hung there. In 1812, the French erected a furnace in one end of the church, in which they proceeded to melt all the candlesticks and other articles of gold and silver which they could collect; but being surprised in the act by the sound of the retreat, they were obliged to carry off many of the articles whole, which the Cossacks afterwards recovered, to the amount of 18½ poods* of gold, and 320 poods of silver. On an elevated platform, in the middle of this church, is the spot where the Imperial coronation is performed, and a little in front of it are three boxes, one of which is used to be filled by the Patriarch, while the other two were appropriated to the use of the Tzar and the Tzaritza. In an upper compartment of the adytum is preserved the copy of an edition of the Slavonic Gospels in extra folio; only a few copies were printed. It is superbly bound, and ornamented with the richest profusion of precious stones. In this temple, the coffins of the Russian Patriarchs, with the exception of Nicon, are deposited in regular order along the south side, and the end opposite to the adytum.

The Cathedral of St. Michael ranks next to this in in splendour and dignity. It was originally built in 1333; and after various repairs and alterations, it was put nearly in its present state by the Empress Catherine, in 1772. All the Tzars, from the time that Moscow became the seat of the empire, to the close of the seven-

* A pood is equal to thirty six pounds English.

teenth century, (with the exception of one) are here deposited; the tombs are built of brick, and have each a silver plate specifying the name of the deceased, and the year of his death.

The palace of the Tzar, within the Krem'l, next to these two cathedrals, is the object most worthy of notice within the Krem'l. This edifice is, probably the most notable instance of constant change and renovation among all the large and more ancient edifices of Moscow. In 1820, it consisted of three parts; the ancient palace of the Tzars, the audience-chamber, and the new palace. The ancient palace was built by an Italian architect at the beginning of the sixteenth century; but the style of it is so singular, that it has been called Grecian, Gothic, Tartar, and Hindoo. In the belvidere are two small arched rooms, which were the Tzar's peculiar apartments. They communicated, by a narrow staircase, with an observatory, a kind of royal police-box; where, at a certain fixed hour, the Tzar daily took his station, while crowds of supplicants assembled in the courts below, deposited their petitions upon a large stone, adjoining the small church, called Spas na Baru. These petitions were brought to the Sovereign, who examined them, and dictated the answers, which were in like manner laid on the same stone, till the petitioners came to receive them. Peter the Great was born in the old palace.

The new palace was originally built in 1748, by the Empress Elizabeth; but it has been repeatedly altered and enlarged. The Empress Catherine formed the project of erecting a most magnificent palace in the Krem'l. The plan was actually executed, and a superb model of it exists in the Imperial Museum. This is one of the most curious things in Moscow. If the work had been completed, it would have been the wonder of the world. The architect, who constructed the plan, was a Russian, who had studied at Paris. This model cost 50,000 rubles. The expense necessary for the accomplishment of the undertaking (as the architect Camporesi, who made the estimate, assures us), would have been 50,000,000 of rubles. The calculation laid before the Empress, stated the amount only at 20,000,000.

The work was begun, but, it is said, the falling in of a part of the fonndation determined the Empress against its prosecution. The plan was to unite the whole Krem'l, having a circumference of two miles, into one magnificent palace. Its triangular form, and the number of churches it contains, offered some difficulties; but the model was rendered complete. Its fronts are ornamented with ranges of beautiful pillars, according to different orders of architecture. Every part of it was finished in the most beautiful manner, even to the fresco painting on the ceiling of the rooms, and the colouring of the various marble columns, intended to decorate the interior. It encloses a theatre and magnificent apartments. Had the work been completed it would have surpassed the temple of Solomon, the propylæum of Amasis, the villa of Adrian, or the forum of Trajan.

The apartments of the new palace are not very large; but they are furnished in a most superb manner. Inlaid floors of various figures and colours, of oak and other wood; beautiful Wilton and Russian carpets; tapestry coloured walls of all shades; immensely large looking-glasses, some of which have many flaws, and others are joined; tables of mahogany, of Siberian beech, of nat-wood, stained and unstained, gilt and ungilt, of marble, of imitation lapis lazuli, and malachite; chairs of the same woods, plain or covered with silk, and gilded; large crystal and bronze lustres, and a crowd of other ornaments, are all found here. The audience-chamber, built at the close of the fifteenth century, was burnt in 1812; but it is now completely repaired and fitted up in its former style: its architecture is simple. The *granovitaya palata*, or square hall, from which the whole edifice takes its name, is a room about sixty-five feet square. In its centre rises an enormous square and highly gilt pillar, which loses itself by expansion into the arches, and with them supports the cieling: the vaults are four in number, and each is crossed by a gilt twisted cord, which has a good effect. Over each window are the arms of three of the governments of Russia. The walls are covered with crimson velvet, bronzed chandeliers, and gilded ornaments, and the floor is overlaid with red cloth. Nume-

rous lustres are suspended from the ceiling. The base of the central pillar is surrounded with shelves, upon which, on great occasions, are arranged the gold and silver utensils and vessels belonging to the court. The throne on the south side is equally elegant with that in the palace. The room is disfigured by a number of seats like an orchestra in one of the chambers. Opposite the throne, and near the roof, is a semi-lunar window, from whence the imperial family, when not present in the hall, could observe the ceremonies after the coronation in the cathedral of assumption, or witness the reception of ambassadors by his Majesty. When the court is at Moscow, balls are frequently given in this hall.

Among the numerous churches included within the Krem'l, that of St. Philip is entitled to distinction, as containing the patriarchal treasury, the riches of which consist of manuscripts and books, mitres and sacerdotal dresses and ornaments, vessels for holy oil, &c. The most valuable manuscripts are those of the Slavonian new Testament, which date as far back as the eleventh and twelfth centuries. The vessels for the preparation of the holy oil consist of two large silver kettles or boilers, gilt inside, two feet and a half in diameter, which, together with silver stirrers and ladles, were presented to the holy synod, by the Empress Catherine II. Between these boilers stands a large silver receiver, on the cover of which is a representation of Samuel anointing Saul. This was also a present of the Empress. They weigh altogether upwards of 700 pounds. From the receiver, the oil is emptied into sixteen elegant silver vases, presented to the synod by the Emperor Paul. The holy oil is made once every third or fourth year, with the following ceremonies. Over a stove, constructed on purpose, are placed the two kettles, in which the different ingredients are mixed, and kept in constant motion by six deacons, who stir them with long rods of cypress, the handles of which are covered with red velvet. When the fire is kindled, and also when the ingredients are put into the kettles, the metropolitan is present to give his benediction; and this he repeats in a most solemn manner, when the ceremony is about to be completed. During the whole time of the preparation, a

succession of deacons keep up the reading of the gospels, and should they read through the Evangelists, they commence afresh. A large flagon also is exhibited, made of mother of pearl, which still contains some of the oil brought from Constantinople, on the introduction of Christianity into Russia, in the tenth century. It is preserved with great care, so that when only a few drops are taken from it, their place is supplied by some of that which had been prepared at a former period, by which means its perpetual virtue is supposed to be secured. The holy oil, when prepared and deposited, is sent to all parts of the empire, to be used for sacramental purposes.

The Imperial Museum in the Krem'l contains little that deserves attention. Costly robes, especially a vest, twelve yards long, worn by Catherine II. during her coronation, the crowns of conquered kingdoms, the long ivory comb, with which the Tzars formerly combed their beards, the code of laws, collected by the father of Peter the Great, a toilette of amber, and some national curiosities, are the objects of most interest and importance. There are also some curious and characteristic memorials of Peter the Great: among these are, a pair of enormous boots, funnel-shaped at the top; an immense tankard; his pocket-book; his portrait which was worn by Prince Mentchikof; his crystal cup; some pieces of mechanism of his own execution, in turnery; a crystal cup, with a ducat embedded in its surface in the same year in which the sovereign himself blew the cup; a model of a ship in silver gilt, which was sent from Holland to that emperor, &c.

The alarm-bell suspended in a tower before the Krem'l, was brought from Novogorod when that city was conquered in 1477. There it had been used as a signal for the people of that republic to assemble from all quarters, in the event of foreign danger or intestine tumult; and they regarded its removal to Moscow as the sure prelude of their departing liberty.

The other gate, leading from the Krem'l to Kitaigórod, is called the "Holy Gate," and is singular from the custom, that every person going in or out, must pass with his *head uncovered*. It is reported to have origi-

nated in a vow made by Ivan Vassillievitch, on the subjugation of the Tartar kingdom of Kazan. Immediately without this gate stands the Pokrovskoi-Sobose, or Cathedral of St. Basil, built by Italian architects, and remarkable for the circumstance of its comprising within its walls a cluster of more than twenty distinct churches or chapels, in all of which service may be performed at the same time, without the sound of what is going forward in one penetrating at all into another.

The Kitai-górod is the most European part of Moscow. One of its most striking objects, is the Krusmaya Plostchad, or Beautiful Place; one of the largest, finest, and most singular squares in Europe, or perhaps in the world. It is 1260 feet long, and its greatest breadth 434 feet. During the summer, it is one of the chief promenades. The markets and bargaining shops in this division of the city, exhibit a novel and entertaining spectacle; and of these, the dead-fish market is certainly one of the greatest curiosities in Moscow. When the winter has so far advanced that the sledge-roads are passable, a large supply of fish is brought from Archangel, and from a great lake in the Government of Novogorod. These are piled up like walls, snow being used to fill the interstices. In March, 1819, a beluga, or great sturgeon was exhibited, which weighed 2450 pounds English, and the head alone 320 pounds. The bargaining shops form a great range of buildings on the east side of the beautiful place. In Moscow, as in nearly all the towns of Russia, the principal shops resemble the bazârs of the East; they are all together, and the merchants live at a distance, coming to their shops early in the morning, and returning at dusk to their houses. There are regular markets in every part of the city, but when a person wishes to have a choice, or to buy a variety of articles at the same time, he generally goes to the bargaining shops. These shops are 600 in number, and besides being doubly locked at night, are all sealed up, a piece of cord or thread being turned round the padlock, and soft wax with an impression affixed over the ends or on the door. A Russian will not readily break a seal; for he deems it particularly *sacred. To break* a lock is, in his opinion, of less con*sequence.*

One of the most remarkable buildings that has been erected in Moscow since the fire, is the Exercise-house. This stupendous edifice is 560 feet in length, the breadth at each end is 168 feet, and the height from 42 to 43½ feet. The construction of the roof is the most surprising part of it; for although of such length, breadth and weight of materials, it rests merely on the walls. In the garret of this building, the number of beams and cross beams which present themselves, resembles an enormous man-of-war on the stocks.

In one quarter of the suburbs, on an elevated spot, there is a large wooden house, belonging to the Orloff family, which gives a correct idea of the style of living of the Russian nobility, about half a century ago. A very extensive tract of ground is covered with a number of separate buildings; the fronts, with the intervals between them, measuring nearly 1000 feet. The upper part is wood, neatly painted of a green colour; the ground stories of the two principal edifices are of stuccoed brick. But though thus plain in their external appearance and materials, their internal arrangement and fitting up, display magnificence, taste, and great attention to convenience.

There is only one bridge of stone across the Moskva, and a few small ones of the same material cross the subsidiary streams; but there are immense numbers of single arches of wood and stone. The most curious are what are called *living bridges*, formed of planks, supported on whole trees laid across one another: these, floating in the river, yield under, and spring after the carriages, &c., being fixed to upright posts, so as also to rise and fall with the river. In the centre, there is a part can be removed for the passage of boats, &c. These bridges are taken away in the spring, during the floods.

The population of Moscow has been variously estimated. It is supposed to have been 312,000 in 1817. In 1805, when the total population is said to have been 208,883, the nobility were reckoned at 12,165; the servants attached to their houses, at 14,445; the slaves resident for a time, at 45,155; those constantly resident, at 12,540; priests, deacons, &c. with their wives, 3,508;

and foreigners, 3,811; of these last, upwards of 1000 were Germans.

In consequence of the immense extent of the city and suburbs, a great number of hackney-coaches are stationed in the streets for the accommodation of passengers. These vehicles are without tops, have generally four wheels, and are provided either with a long bench, or one, two, or three separate seats, like armed chairs, placed sideways: the fares are so reasonable, that servants occasionally use them upon errands to distant parts of the city. The coachman generally drives a full trot, at the rate of eight or nine miles in an hour. There is hardly an individual in Moscow above the rank of a plebeian, who has not four horses to his carriage; and nothing is more common than to meet the equipages of the nobility, with complete sets, driving merely about the streets of the city; but the postilions are generally ragged boys, and the coachman a peasant in his sheep-skin, while the traces of the horses are made of no better materials than rope.

The police of Moscow, like that of St. Petersburgh, is very effective. The city is divided into 20 quarters, and these again into 88 subdivisions. In the absence of the emperor, the military governor is supreme; but the head-police-master is the acting president of the whole system. Besides constables, watchmen, &c. there are officers, whose sole business it is to keep a register of all the inhabitants in their respective districts, examine and arrange all passports, settle all petty quarrels or disputes, and keep a watchful eye on all that passes: a faithful report of all is carried to a head officer. The number of watch-houses is 360, and as there are three watchmen to each, their number is 1080. Every householder and innkeeper is obliged to give into the police office the names of those who lodge with them; and if a stranger or lodger stay out all night, and does not return on the third day, the landlord must inform the police of it. The regulations with respect to the arrival and the departure of strangers, are similar to those observed at Petersburgh.

Moscow, from the great number of its wooden houses, is much exposed to fires; the establishment and regu-

lations to protect it from this calamity are excellent. There are *depôts* for waggons, engines, &c. surmounted by lofty towers, at the top of which, watchmen are stationed. As soon as these perceive a fire in their quarter, a signal is made by a flag in the day time, and by lanterns, at night, which is repeated at all the other quarters. When splendid entertainments are given by the court or nobility, the fire-engine, firemen, and police are all stationed round the edifice. In summer, the whole regiment of firemen, with their engines, are exercised in watering the roads. In order to render these men more expert, they are trained in a very singular, but useful exercise. A lofty pole, about the height of the fourth story of a large house, with a platform at its top, is erected; to this ladders are attached, and the firemen are practised in descending from the platform by means of ropes or rope-ladders. They are even expected to accustom themselves to jump from the platform, a sail-cloth suspended by poles, feather beds &c. being placed to break their fall. There is also another regulation which is of great utility in cases of fire, as well as of riots. At the entrance of each street, there is a chevaux de frise gate, one end of which turns upon a pivot, and the other rolls upon a wheel; near it is a sentry-box, in which a man is occasionally stationed. In times of riot or fire, the sentinel shuts the gate, and all passage is immediately stopped.

The weather at Moscow is subject to great extremes, yet, considering its size, this city is not unhealthy. The width of its streets, and the great extent of open space, which it occupies, afford a free circulation to the air; and as the ground on which it stands consists of several eminences, it is free from the noxious vapours of marshes and pools.

The situation of Moscow is between 35. 10. and 38. 40. of East Longitude, and 54. 40. and 56. 30. of North Latitude.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

When was the city of Moscow founded, and in what centuries was it enlarged?

In what years was it attacked and burnt by the Tartars and Poles?

How long was it the capital of Russia, and until what period was it the frequent residence of the court?

Of what form is Moscow, what extent of ground does it occupy, and what river flows through it?

How is the approach to Moscow from the north described?

What was the appearance of this city previously to its conflagration in 1812?

In what respects has the rebuilding of it conduced to its improvement?

Of what material are most of its newly-erected dwellings composed?

Into how many quarters is Moscow divided, and what are their names?

How is the Krem'l situate, and what are its circumference and shape?

How many bells are contained in the octagonal belfry, named John Veliki, and what are the dimensions and weight of the largest of them?

What is the supposed value of this immense bell, where was it founded, and in consequence of what event did it sink into its present situation?

How is the view of the city from Ivan-Veliki described?

What is remarkable in the Cathedral of Assumption?

Which cathedral ranks next to this in splendour and dignity, and on what account is it entitled to distinction?

By whom, and at what period was the ancient palace of the Tsars erected, and which of them was born in it?

To what use was the Royal Observatory in this palace appropriated?

Who formed the project of erecting a most magnificent palace within the Krem'l?

At what expense was this vast undertaking estimated, and why did it fail?

How are the apartments of the new palace furnished?

What are the size and ornaments of the square hall in this palace?

For what is the church of St. Philip remarkable?

Whence was the alarm bell in the tower before the Krem'l taken, and what was its use before its removal?

What custom is observed in passing through the Holy Gate?

How are the market and bargaining shops of Moscow described, and by what means are the latter secured?

Which are the most curious bridges of Moscow?

What is the population of this city, how is its police administered, and what means are employed to protect it from fires?

CHAPTER VIII.

CITIES AND EDIFICES CONTINUED.

Novogorod.] This is one of the most ancient cities in Russia; and was formerly called Great Novogorod, to distinguish it from other Russian towns of a similar appellation. In the 9th century, Ruric, the first Great-Duke of Russia, made it the seat of his government; but soon after the decease of that prince, the capital was transferred to Kief, and Novogorod continued for a century under the jurisdiction of governors. In 970, Sviatoslaf created his third son Vladimir Duke of Novogorod: Vladimir, succeeding his father in the throne of Russia, ceded the town to his son Yaroslaf; who in 1036, conferred upon it extensive privileges. From this period, Novogorod was for a long time governed by its own Dukes, who were at first subordinate to the Great-dukes, but gradually usurped an absolute independence.

But while the Dukes of Novogorod shook off the yoke of a distant lord, they were unable to retain their own subjects in obedience. They sunk into mere annual magistrates, so that Novogorod became a republic under the jurisdiction of a nominal sovereign. This state of things, however unfavourable to the Dukes, was extremely beneficial to the interests of the town, which became the great mart of trade between Russia and the Hanseatic cities and towns. At this period its dominions were so extensive, its power so great, and its situation so impregnable, as to give rise to a proverb, "Who can resist the Gods and Great Novogorod."

It continued in this flourishing state until the 15th century, when the Great-dukes of Russia laid claim to its feudal sovereignty; a demand which the inhabitants were sometimes compelled to acknowledge. At length, in 1471, Ivan Vassillievitch I. asserted his right to the sovereignty of Novogorod, and enforced his pretensions

by a formidable army. Having defeated the troops of the republic, and forced the citizens to recognize his claims, he appointed a governor over them, whom he vested with the authority of their ancient Dukes.

Ivan, by no means contented with this limited species of government, laid siege to the town in 1477; and being abetted by the internal dissensions of the inhabitants, he entered it in triumph, abolished the charter of its liberties, and reduced it to a state of unconditional subjection.

From this period the Great-duke became in effect absolute Sovereign of Novogorod; but notwithstanding the despotism to which the inhabitants were subject, both under him and his successors, the city continued the largest and most commercial in all Russia. Richard Chanceler, who passed through it in 1554, in his way to Moscow, thus describes it:—"Next unto Moscow the city of Novogorod is reputed the chiefest in Russia; for although it be in majesty inferior to it, yet in greatness it goeth beyond it. It is the chiefest and greatest mart-town of all Moscovy; and albeit the Emperor's seat is not there, but at Moscow, yet the commodiousness of the river, falling into that gulf, which is called Sinus Finnicus, (Gulf of Finland) whereby it is well frequented by merchants, makes it more famous than Moscow itself."

Vassillievitch II. having in 1570 discovered a secret correspondence between some of the principal inhabitants and Sigismond Augustus, King of Poland, relative to a surrender of the city into his hands, punished them in the most inhuman manner. According to some authors, twenty-five thousand; according to others, more than thirty thousand persons perished in this dreadful carnage.

This horrid catastrophe and the subsequent oppressions which the town endured from that sanguinary prince, impaired its strength; but it retained some traces of its ancient splendour; until the foundation of Petersburgh, whither was transferred all the commerce of the Baltic, of which it had long been the centre.

The present town is surrounded by a rampart of earth, with a range of old towers at regular distances, forming

a circumference of scarcely a mile and a half; and even this inconsiderable circle includes much open space, and many houses which are not inhabited. This rampart probably inclosed several interior circles: without it was a vast suburb, which reached to the distance of six miles, and included all the convents and churches, the ancient ducal palace, and other structures, that now make a splendid but solitary appearance in the adjacent plain.

The river Volkhof separates the town into two divisions; the trading part, and the quarter of St. Sophia, which are united by means of a bridge, partly of wood, and partly of brick.

The first division, or the Trading part, is, excepting the Governor's house, a rude cluster of wooden habitations, and distinguished from the common villages, only by numerous brick churches and convents, the melancholy vestiges of former magnificence. These remains of ruined grandeur abound on every side; while half-cultivated fields, enclosed with high palisadoes, and large spaces, covered with nettles, attest the present desolation.

The quarter of St. Sophia derives its appellation from the cathedral, and comprehends the fortress, or Krem'l, erected for the purpose of controlling the inhabitants, and preventing frequent insurrections. It is of an oval form, and surrounded by a high brick wall, strengthened with round and square towers: the wall is similar to that which encloses the Krem'l at Moscow, and was also built in 1490, by the Italian architect, Solario, of Milan, by the order of Ivan Vassillievitch I. soon after his conquest of Novogorod. The fortress contains the cathedral of St. Sophia, the old archiepiscopal mansion with the stair-case on the out-side, part of a new palace not finished, and a few other brick buildings; but the remaining space is a waste, overspread with weeds and nettles, and covered with ruins.

The cathedral of St. Sophia was begun in 1044, and completed in 1051. It was probably erected soon after the introduction of Christianity into Russia by the Greeks, and called St. Sophia, from the church of that name in Constantinople. It is a high square building, with a gilded cupola, and four tin domes. The entrance

is through a pair of brazen gates, ornamented with various figures in *alto relievo*, representing the Passion of the Saviour, and other scriptural histories. According to tradition, these gates were brought from the ancient town of Cherson, where Vladimir the Great was baptized; but the inscription upon them renders it probable that they came from Magdeburg in Germany.

Within this cathedral are twelve massy piers white-washed, which, as well as the walls, are thickly covered with the representations of the Saviour, the Virgin Mary, and of various saints. Some of these paintings are of high antiquity, and probably anterior to the revival of the art in Italy.

Several princes of the ducal family of Russia are interred in this cathedral. The most ancient sepulchres are of carved wood, gilt, silvered, and surrounded with iron rails; the others are of brick and mortar. Within the sanctuary the walls are covered with Mosaic compartments, of coarse workmanship, but curious from their antiquity.

The population of Novogorod is about 8,000. It is still the see of an archbishop, and is 112 miles S. S. E. of St. Petersburgh.

Kief.] The town of Kief is one of the most ancient in Russia; but we have no certain accounts of it which reach beyond the middle of the ninth century. In the year 882, it became the metropolis of southern Russia. During the reigns of Vladimir and several of his successors, the Grand-dukes, it greatly increased in size; but the statement, that about the beginning of the eleventh century it contained 400 churches, exceeds all rational belief. In consequence of the devastations to which it has been repeatedly subject from the plague, the Tartars, and other hostile visitors, Kief has lost much of its ancient grandeur, although it continues to be one of the most remarkable places in the empire.

The eastern approach to Kief presents a view that is highly striking and picturesque. Immediately in front, on the lofty bank of the Borysthenes, stands the famous Petcherskoi Monastery, with its churches and gilded spires; the bold and commanding fortress and

bastions with which it is surrounded, convey the idea of security and strength; the cathedral of St. Sophia, and other churches in the "old Town," occupying elevated situations, and some of them of very ancient date, create in the mind a kind of superstitious awe; while, at a distance to the right, close to the water's edge, stretches Podole, or the "Town in the Vale"—the busy scene of mercantile enterprise. The varied surface of the ground, now rising into pointed heights, now indented by deep ravines, and in many parts covered with gardens and extended patches of copse, greatly tends to heighten the interest of the perspective. The town itself is divided into three parts; the southern derives its name from the monastery of Petchersk, and, besides the fortress and convent, contains another celebrated monastery, dedicated to St. Nicholas, and six churches, some of which stand near to the margin of the river, where is also a number of houses, chiefly occupied by the lower classes of the inhabitants. Near to the fortress is a bazâr, behind which the houses assume the appearance of a regular town, having one principal street, with several cross streets, terminating to the west in a deep gulley, the sides and brink of which are principally inhabited by Jews. Beyond this, in a northerly direction, is a subdivision, containing the houses of the Governor and other persons of distinction, delightfully shaded by lofty trees, some of which appear to be of great age.

The Petcherskoi monastery is a place equally interesting to the Historian, as the residence of Nestor, the invaluable annalist of Russia, and to the members of the Greek Church, as the repository of those relics and monuments which have been held in high religious veneration during many successive centuries. It is entered by a magnificent gate, which is ornamented with full length representations of Anthony and Theodosius, the first two Abbots of the monastery, and other objects of popular veneration. Passing along a fine alley, on either side of which are the cells of the monks, the visitor arrives at the cathedral dedicated to the "Ascension of the Virgin," the interior of which is greatly fitted to produce feelings of a solemn and contemplative

nature. It is erected in a style of great architectural elegance, and many parts of the walls are adorned with beautiful representations of the most interesting scenes of Scripture history. Its seven cupolated turrets are richly gilt, and, together with the belfry, which stands at some distance, and is upwards of 300 feet in height, greatly add to the magnificent appearance of the place. The interior of this church is indescribably splendid; the whole of the walls seem covered with pictures of martyrs and saints, encased in richly gilded or silver-covered frames; but the most prominent of all is one of the Virgin, above the doors which open into the most Holy Place. Before this painting, at the hour of vespers, is burned an immense profusion of lights, whose effect superadded to that produced by the tapers burning before the different shrines, is but just sufficient to light up to view the highly ornamented ceiling of the edifice.

The Catacombs consist of subterranean labyrinths of great extent, which are excavated in the precipitous declivity of the hill forming the bank of the river. These are divided into two classes; the nearer, and the more remote,—the distance being reckoned from the principal church within the precincts of the monastery, in the gulley to the south of which the two churches are situated. A visit to these remarkable dormitories is thus described. "Lights being procured, we descended into the passage leading to the Catacombs, known by the name of St. Anthony's, the founder of the monastery, whose relics are preserved in a cubitory at the extremity of the labyrinth. This passage is about six feet in height, but so extremely narrow, that it is with difficulty two persons can pass each other. The sides and roof are, for the most part, black from the smoke of the torches which are incessantly conveyed through the passage; and where there is any turn or winding in it, the projecting angle is partly smoothed and worn away by the friction occasioned by the numerous companies of visitors."

"We had not proceeded far, when we came to a niche on the right side of the passage, containing a coffin *without* the lid, in which lay the mummied body of one

of the saints, wrapped in a silken shroud, with one of its stiffened hands placed in such a posture, as easily to receive the kisses of those who visit the cemetery for purposes of devotion. This token of respect was paid by our guide, not only to this relic, but to all we passed, the number of which, in this dormitory, amounted to eighty-two."

At a short distance to the south, are situated the "further" Catacombs, or those of Theodosius, but they are neither so winding, nor so extensive as the former; nor is the fame of the saints, whose relics they contain, equal to that of those entombed in the caverns of Anthony. The number of bodies, or parts of bodies deposited in them amounts to forty-five

Kief, on account of its monastery and catacombs is held as sacred by the Russians as Jerusalem was by the Israelites. It is the great resort of pilgrims from all parts of the empire, not even excepting Kamstchatka, and other distant regions of Siberia, who, as they proceed hither, collect money from those who are not able to come in person, with which they purchase candles to be placed before the images of the saints. The average number of those who annually perform this pilgrimage, is estimated at 50,000.

The second or middle division of Kief, consists of the "Old Town", which is separated from that already described by a deep ravine, intersecting the hills on which they are situated. It forms the site of the ancient Slavonian Pantheon, where Perun, Horsa, Lado, and other objects of idolatrous worship, had altars erected for the celebration of their respective rites. It is surrounded by immense earthen walls, and contains, within a small compass, not fewer than five churches, of which the principal is the cathedral of St. Sophia, built by Yaroslaf in the year 1037, on the spot where he had gained a signal victory over the Petchenegans. In the magnitude and grandeur of its structure, it exceeds the Petcherskoi cathedral, and is remarkable for a colossal Mosaic representation of the Lord's Supper, together with other representations on a grand scale.

Close to the cathedral, is the residence of the Metropolitan—a sombre building, shaded by venerable trees,

and exhibiting in the interior, the most striking vestiges of ancient art. On the precise spot where Perun, the Jupiter of Russia, had a fane consecrated to his worship, stands the church of St. Basil, built by Vladimir, on the introduction of Christianity into the empire; and near the northern termination of the elevated ground forming the site of the town, is part of another church, erected by the same prince.

Podole, "the low town," or "the town of the vale," is chiefly inhabited by merchants, and is famous for its magnificent Academy, in which upwards of 6,200 students are taught the sciences, according to the forms of the old German Universities. This division of Kief, being built on a regular plan, forms a perfect contrast with the other parts of the town, and as it abounds in large and fruitful gardens, presents an agreeable perspective to the view.

A little below the road leading down to the low town from the Petcherskoi division, a fine monument has been raised over the fountain in which the children of Vladimir the Great were baptized, in the year 989. It consists of an obelisk of stone, about 150 feet in height, terminating at the top in a globe and cross; and at the foot, close to the pedestal on which it rests, is a wooden crucifix, with the inscription *Jesus of Nazareth, the King of the Jews*, in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin. It was near this spot, that the general baptism of the Russians took place, the same year.

The population of Kief is upwards of 20,000. It is 270 miles N. by W. of Cherson, in Long. 30. 27 E. Lat. 50. 27 N.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

When, and by whom, was Novogorod made the seat of the Russian government?

How long was it under the jurisdiction of Governors, and who conferred upon it great immunities?

What elevated this city to commercial importance, and what proverb was used concerning it, during its government by Dukes?

Which of the Great-dukes laid claim to the sovereignty of Novogorod in the fifteenth century, and by what means did he reduce it to a state of unconditional subjection?

What account was given of this ancient city in the sixteenth century, by Richard Chanceler?

Why did Vassiliievitch II. punish its inhabitants, and how many of them were made the victims of his vengeance?

What event reduced it to its present state of obscurity and neglect?

By what river is Novogorod separated into two divisions, and how are these divisions united?

What description is given of the trading part of this city?

From what building does the quarter of St Sophia derive its name, and how is it described?

What is remarkable in the cathedral of St. Sophia?

How many inhabitants does Novogorod contain, and what is its distance from St. Petersburgh?

When did Kief become the metropolis of southern Russia, under what princes was it greatly enlarged, and what events have occasioned the loss of its ancient grandeur?

What account is given of the eastern approach to this city, and what are its principal divisions?

Why is the Petcherskoi monastery interesting, and what is there remarkable in its buildings and ornaments?

Of what do the catacombs consist, and how is a visit to them described?

How many pilgrims annually visit Kief, and for what purposes do they collect money on the road?

On what site does the Old Town of this city stand, and which is the principal of its churches?

By whom is the "low town" or Podole inhabited, and for what is it famous?

What is the population of Kief, and how far is it from Cherson?

CHAPTER IX.

ASIATIC RUSSIA.

Boundaries and extent.] Asiatic Russia extends from about 37 degrees of E. longitude, to the eastern extremity of Asia, (more than 5000 English miles) and from the Frozen Ocean, to the great range of mountains which separates it from the central plateau. Its breadth exceeds 1500 miles; but it is much narrower towards the east.

Divisions.] Asiatic Russia consists of two distinct parts, Siberia and Caucasus. The first is divided into the two great governments of Tobolsk on the west, and Irkutsk on the east. The latter government includes the peninsula of Kamschatka. Besides these two governments, the province of Astrachan, with parts of Caucasus, Perm, and Orenburg, are Asiatic. The following may be adopted as a general division of this portion of the empire:—

Governments.		*Capitals.*
SIBERIA	Tobolsk	Tobolsk
	Irkutsk	Irkutsk
	Astrachan	Astrachan
	Part of Perm	
	Part of Orenburg	
CAUCASUS	P. Part of Caucasus	Georgiewsk
	Cossacks of the Black Sea	Ekaterinodar
	Circassia	
	Georgia	Tiflis
	Lesghistan	
	Daghestan	Derbend
	Schirwan	Baku
	Mingrelia	Zalikara
	Imeretta	Catalis

FACE OF THE COUNTRY AND MOUNTAINS.

Face of the Country.] Asiatic Russia displays less variation of surface than perhaps any other part of the globe, of equal extent. Like the European portion of this empire, it is chiefly composed of steppes; sometimes arid or saline deserts, at others principally occupied by marshes, or covered with almost interminable forests; while some consist of a fertile soil, and produce luxuriant crops.

Mountains.] Though the principal character of Asiatic Russia is that of an immense plain, it is not destitute, on its confines, of mountain ranges. The Uralian mountains, separating Europe from Asia, have already been mentioned. The great ridge which stretches nearly from the eastern shores of the Caspian to the promontory of Tschutskoi, is known by various names. The principal of the Siberian chains is that of Altay, called by the Chinese, the Golden Mountain, which extends its steep and snowy summits from the Irtish to the Yenisei, and forms a barrier between the Russian Empire and Independent Tartary. South of the lake of Baikal, the higher points of this chain are said to be more than 10,000 feet above the sea; but in general they are of less elevation. After winding to the north, they are known as the Daouria, which are succeeded by those of the Yablonnoi and Stannovoi, which give place to the vague denomination of the mountains of Okotsk. This range gives rise to many of the largest rivers of Northern Asia; but little is known beyond its outlines and general direction. It sends out various branches which are of inferior height, and diversify the neighbouring districts. Almost the whole province of Kamschatka consists of rocky mountains, containing several volcanoes, which seldom remain two years without eruptions, when the whole country is covered with ashes for thirty miles round.

RIVERS AND LAKES.

Rivers.] The principal rivers of Asiatic Russia are the Oby, the Yenisei, and the Lena, which divide all the broad part of Siberia into three great basins.

Oby. This river, which is esteemed the largest in the Russian empire, originates properly in Bukharia; whence it issues in a stream called Tshulishman, and in about 52 degrees north latitude, falls into the lake Altyn. From this lake, it flows out again under the appellation of the By, and does not receive the appellation of Oby until its junction with the Katunya. After crossing the Altayan chain it flows in a serpentine direction towards the north-west, till it meets the Irtish which issues from the said mountain range, and rivals, if not exceeds it in magnitude. Having collected the waters of such a wide space, it becomes a large river long before it reaches the sea, and is in some places several miles in width. The Oby is navigable almost to its source; but its waters are often fœtid, by reason of the slowness of its current and the vast morasses which it pervades. After a course of about 2180 miles, it falls by an extremely wide estuary into the Arctic Ocean. The Irtish flows nearly in the same direction as the Oby, but a few degrees more to the west.

Yenisei. The Yenisei is at first composed of two rivers, the Kamsara and the Veikem, which originate in Bukharia, and form a junction in 5½ degrees north latitude and 111 of longitude. About the mouth of the Bom-Kemtshyng it enters on Russian ground, and assumes the name of Yenisei. After various windings it tends northward, and in 70 degrees north latitude, and 103½ longitude, forms a bay containing several islands. It falls at length into the Arctic Ocean, having completed a course of about 1700 miles, which is in general rapid, though near its mouth it flows so gently that the current can hardly be perceived.

Lena. The Lena rises to the west of the sea of Baikal, and pursues a course nearly north-east as far as Yakutok. From that place its direction is almost due north. Its channel is of great width, and full of islands. This river has a gentle current, favourable to navigation. By sailing out of the Lena into the Aldan, then into the Mai, and afterwards into the Yudoma, the journey to Okotsk and Kamschatka is greatly expedited. The Lena performs a course of 1600 miles, and disembogues itself by five mouths into the Frozen Ocean.

These principal rivers receive in their course a great number of others, which are entitled to no particular distinction. Falling into the Frozen Ocean, the vast streams which water Asiatic Russia cannot open the way to foreign commerce; but they are well adapted to the purposes of inland navigation. From the uncultivated state of the country, and the great deficiency of population, their importance, however, is yet but little known. In a country like this, it can scarcely be expected that canals should be cut, as the benefits could not compensate the labour and cost. It may, however, be observed, from the course of the rivers, that by cutting 2 canals, one between the rivers Tschassovaia and Taghil, and the other between the Ket and the Yenisei, the latter being a distance of little more than 60 miles, and the former somewhat less, an uninterrupted inland navigation might be opened from Petersburgh to the distant parts of Siberia.

Lakes.] The Caspian. This large body of water, having no visible connection with any of the great oceans, nor any apparent outlet, has been thought not to deserve the appellation of a sea, but to be more properly classed among the large lakes. It was anciently called by the Greeks the Hyrcanian or Persian sea. The Tartars give it the name of the Akdinghis, or the White Sea; and the Persians denominate it Gursen from the old capital Gurgan, which is said to have stood in its vicinity. This sea reaches in length, from about the 37th to the 47th degree of north latitude, and in breadth, where it is the widest, from the 65th to the 74th degree of longitude. Its circumference, comprehending the great gulf (though excluding the little sinuosities) is 3135 miles.

The Caspian receives the Yaik, the Yemba, the Kur, the Araxis, the Volga, and various other rivers; and though it has no visible outlet, it is never perceived to swell, except in the spring, on the melting of the snows. To explain this phenomenon, various hypotheses have been invented. Some writers, with Ptolemy, have imagined subterraneous passages communicating with the Black Sea; others have ascribed the whole to evaporation. A third class suppose that the true reason of this sea remaining undiminished is to be found in the quality

of its bed, which consists of shell-sand, through which its waters are probably filtered, and descend into a subterraneous abyss.

The Caspian, at the distance of some miles from land, is more than 450 fathoms deep; but on approaching the shore it is every where so shallow, that the smallest vessels, if loaded, are obliged to remain at a distance. Its navigation is highly dangerous: certain winds prevail with such absolute sway, that vessels are often deprived of every resource; and in its whole extent there is scarcely a port that can be called safe. The Emperor Peter I. embarked on this sea, in 1722 with a fleet of 250 galleys, and 35 store ships, carrying 33,000 men, on an expedition against the Persians; but above one third of the soldiers perished by storm and shipwreck.

Though the surface of the Caspian is so extensive, its products are but little varied. Plants are rare; the few seen are of the mollusca tribes. Fish abound in it, but, compared with the expanse of its waters, they are scarce. The principal are the sturgeon, beluga, sterlet, salmon, carp, tench, &c. Seals also are extremely numerous. The varieties of this species are diversified, however, only by the colour. Some are quite black, others, white, some whitish, yellowish, &c., and some streaked like a tiger. They crawl upon the islands, where the fishermen kill them with long clubs. One is hardly dispatched when others come to his assistance and share his fate. These animals are exceedingly tenacious of life, and endure more than thirty hard blows before they die. They will even live for several days after having received many mortal wounds. They are extremely fat, and an active fishery is carried on for the sake of their oil. The only shell fish, found in the Caspian, are three or four species of cockle, the common muscle, some species of snails, and a few others. It abounds, however, in birds of different kinds, as storks, herons, bitterns, spoonbills, red geese, red ducks, &c.: the most beautiful of these is the red goose. This animal has nothing in common with a goose, nor is its colour red, but white, though the tips of the wings, round the eyes, the beak, and the feet are scarlet. It is of the size of

a stork, has a long neck and high legs, is very savoury to the taste, and lives on fish.

The waters of the Caspian are in general salt; but the salt is diminished in those parts of it which receive the great rivers. These waters have a peculiar acrid taste, which affects the tongue with an impression similar to that made by the bile of animals, and which is most perceptible after the prevalency of north and north-west winds. To account for this phenomenon, it should be observed that the Caspian is surrounded on its west side by the mountains of Caucasus, which extend from Derbent to the Black Sea. These abound with combustible and mineral substances; and springs of Naphtha are common at the foot of them. It is chiefly to the Naphtha that the bitterness of the waters is to be ascribed; and it is certain that the north and north-west winds detach the greater quantities of it.

Baikal. This lake or sea is, next to the Caspian, the largest body of water in the Russian Empire, and is called by the peasants, the Holy Sea. Its length is 366 miles, and its breadth from 25 to 53; its depth varies from 22 to 90 fathoms. It is surrounded by high and in general bare mountains; and is therefore exposed to violent storms. Its water at a distance, appears of a sea-green colour, yet it is fresh, and so clear, that objects may be seen in it several fathoms deep. Towards the latter end of December, it is usually frozen over, and in the beginning of May the ice is thawed. By means of this lake, the Russians carry on commerce with China, and travellers commonly cross it in their way to the more remote eastern parts of Siberia. Occasional earthquakes, naphtha floating on the surface, and hot springs on the margin, indicate the existence of subterraneous combustion. The Baikal contains several islands, and the borders are frequented by sables and civet cats. It abounds in sturgeons and pikes, with many seals of the black, but none of the spotted kind. The solomüanca, a fish peculiar to it, which is supposed to live in the recesses of the Gulf, is never caught, except after the tempests, when it is seen on the surface.

Between the rivers Irtish and Oby is a lake about 170 miles in length, and divided by an island into two

parts, called the lakes of Tchani and Soumi. Several other lakes are situated between this and the Uralian mountains. That of Altyn, which has already been mentioned, is nearly 40 miles long and 20 broad. Some small saline lakes are found on the steppes north of the Caspian, and are considered as indications of that sea having extended much farther north than at present.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

What is the extent of Asiatic Russia?

How is it divided, and what is its general appearance?

Which is the principal of the Siberian chain of mountains, how far does it extend, and between what countries does it form a barrier?

What mountains give rise to many of the largest rivers of Asiatic Russia?

For what are the mountains of Kamschatka remarkable?

Which are the three principal rivers of Asiatic Russia?

Where does the river Oby rise, what principal river does it receive in its course, and into what ocean does it fall?

Of what rivers is the Yenisei at first composed, where does it enter into Russian ground, and what is the length of its course to the Frozen Sea?

Where is the source of the Lena, what is remarkable in its channel, and what facilities does it afford to travelling?

To what purposes are these rivers particularly adapted, and by what means could they be made to open an uninterrupted inland navigation from the capital to the distant parts of Siberia?

What was the ancient name of the Caspian sea or lake?

What are the length and the circumference of this vast body of water?

How is the remarkable fact explained, that though the Caspian has no visible outlet, and is constantly receiving a vast accession of waters, it discovers no perceptible rise?

What are the depth of this lake, and the character of its navigation?

Which are the principal fish that are found in it?

How are the numerous seals which it contains killed, and for what are they valuable?

In what birds does the Caspian abound?

Of what taste are its waters, where is this taste most prevalent, and how is it accounted for?

By what name do the peasants call the lake of Baikal, and what are its length, breadth, and depth?

Why is it exposed to violent storms, and with what country is it the medium of Russian commerce?

What fish is peculiar to it, and where is it caught?

What lakes lie between the Irtish and Oby, and what are the *length and breadth of* the Altyn?

CHAPTER X.

CLIMATE, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS AND ANIMALS.

Climate.] The climate of Asiatic Russia is colder than that of the European part under the same latitude. Beyond 60 degrees, the winter continues nine or ten months, and the ground even in the middle of summer is found to be frozen at the depth of three or four feet.

In the southern part the cold is often extreme. Mercury has been known to freeze in 18 degrees of latitude; and even on the southern borders in 50 degrees the cold is severe. North of the lake of Baikal, the summer is generally so short and uncertain that agriculture is almost impracticable. In the most genial parts, where it is attempted, if the crop does not ripen before the end of August, it is usually buried in snow, before it can be reaped.

The forests of Siberia contribute to render the air in many places damp and unwholesome, particularly in the western regions. The eastern districts are colder but more salubrious. In most parts the winds are violent, and hurricanes frequently bury both man and beast beneath the sand and snow. In the deserts of the Kalmucks bordering on the Volga and the Caspian sea, the summer heats are sometimes excessive. In the province of Astrachan the heat is sufficient to mature the grape; and in the mountainous region of Caucasus, every variety of climate is exhibited.

Vegetables.] In the greatest part of the vast extent of Siberia, none but the hardiest vegetables are found. The oak and the hazel, which defy the rigours of a British or German winter, will not flourish under the same parallels in this frigid clime. They indeed stretch along the northern base of the Altayan chain, but farther north they become stunted. The middle regions, however, present immense forests of birch,

alder, &c. as well as of all the various species of pines and firs. Many districts of Siberia are productive of corn. Some parts near the Oby, yield plentiful crops for twenty years in succession. Several districts, are well adapted to pasturage; in others, hemp and flax are cultivated. In the south-western part is a region which contains forests of the cedar, the cypress, the beech and the oak, and whose orchards produce all the fruits of the temperate climes. But though Asiatic like European Russia presents some pleasant and fertile spots, yet partly from the disadvantages of soil and climate, and partly from want of population and culture, dreariness and sterility are its predominant characteristics.

Animals.] The rein-deer inhabit eastern and northern Siberia, and supply the place of the horse, the cow, and the sheep. The inhabitants of these countries employ them as beasts of draught and burden, drink their milk or prepare it into cheese, feed on their flesh, and manufacture their down into warm clothes and mattresses, their sinews into twine, and their skins into coverings for themselves and their yourts. The utility of these singular animals is greatly enhanced by their capability of enduring the most extreme cold, and subsisting on a species of moss, which they dig from beneath the snow, and with which they allay their thirst. Dogs are used as post-horses by the Russians in the government of Irkutsk, and among the Kamschadales, who have no other species of domestic animal. Four of them will draw three adult persons in a sledge, with fifty pounds weight of baggage. On good roads, they perform a journey of a hundred miles in a day. They are so spirited as often to dislocate their joints in drawing; and, by the lightness of their tread, and the keenness of their scent, pass safely over slightly frozen rivers, or trackless deserts of snow.

The bear inhabits the forests of Siberia. Black bears are so numerons in Kamschatka, as to appear in troops, and so gentle and inoffensive as to receive food from the hand. The bear, whose skin it an article of commerce, and whose flesh and fat afford a favourite food to the rude tribes of the north, is caught by an ingenious stra-

tagem. The mountaineers of Siberia fasten a heavy block to a rope, which having a noose at the other end, they lay in the bear's path; being entangled, the animal in a rage seizes the block, throws it down the precipice, and being dragged along with it, is usually killed. The glutton, which is found in the districts of the Lena, and in other parts of Siberia, is remarkable for killing the rein-deer. Having strewn moss beneath a tree, he watches till the bait allures his prey, and leaping upon his neck tears out his eyes, and so torments him, that the poor sufferer beats himself to death against the tree. The elk roams over all Siberia within the 65th degree of latitude; and herds of the stag and roebuck appear about the Irtish and Yenisei. The evek is a native of the Siberian mountains; the wild sheep and rock ram are numerous on the Altayan; while the musk-animal and wild boar are found on those which encircle the Baikal. Droves of antelopes traverse the Irtish; and the craw-goat inhabits Daouria. The Mongol horses are remarkable for their beauty; some of them resembling the tiger, and the leopard, in the variety of their colours. The beaver is an inhabitant of the Yenisei; and in some of the southern districts the camel is not uncommon.

But the most remarkable part of the zoology of Asiatic Russia consists of the various animals which supply those rich furs that are converted into so valuable an article of commerce. The animals, which furnish these furs, are of a great variety of kinds, and their skins are different in value. The black fox of eastern Siberia and Kamschatka is held in the highest estimation; and being scarce, its skin bears an extravagant price. The importance of this animal in commerce, is such, that sometimes a single skin cannot be had for less than 500 rubles; sometimes, even the price has been as high as 1,000 rubles. The black fox is consequently the choicest object of chase among all the nations of Eastern Siberia, as one skin frequently pays the tribute of a whole village; and the care which they take of the young cubs, which they catch, is so great, that the women nourish them at their breasts. There are various other kinds of foxes in Siberia, but their skins are of a

far inferior value. The sable, although of not so exorbitant a price, as the black fox, is far more plentiful, as it abounds through the whole extent of Siberia and Kamschatka; and the inferiority of value being compensated by numbers, this animal may be reckoned the most important of all those which supply the fur trade of Russia. At the time of the conquest of Kamschatka, the sables were so plentiful, and so little esteemed by the Kamschadales, that for 10 rubles' worth of ironware the Russians found no difficulty in obtaining the value of 500 or 600 rubles in sables, leaving an enormous profit of 4000 or 5000 per cent. The prices of the sables are various, from 50 rubles and upwards. The Chinese, the Persians, and the Turks, are the greatest admirers of delicate furs. Constantinople is said to be the principal market for sables. Besides these, innumerable other small animals contribute to the fur trade of Russia, the principal of which are the martin, the squirrel, the ermine, the rabbit and the marmotte

The walrus, or sea horse, the whale and the seal, are common in the Arctic ocean; the maniti is found in the straits of Beering. The fishes of the Caspian have been mentioned in the description of that sea. It may be proper, however, to add, that in a medium of four years, there is caught in its fisheries, together with those of the Volga and the Yaik, the number of 103,500 great sturgeons; of small ones, 302,000; and of the sevrugen, 1,345,000.

Mineral productions.] The mineral productions of Russia are chiefly obtained in the Asiatic regions.

The primitive mountains supply great quantities of granite and porphyry. Alabaster is also found in great abundance, and of every colour. Yellow, gray, and cloudy marble abounds in many places, and white is found in the Uralian quarries, little inferior to the finest Parian.

The chief gold mines are on the Asiatic side of the Uralian mountains, and were first opened in 1754. These annually supply about 6,430 tons of ore, which yield about 190 pounds of refined metal. But the produce has increased, it is said, to nearly 280 lbs. of gold.

The mines which were previously opened in the mountain of Olonetz, have either been abandoned, or are now little productive..

Mines of silver are worked in several places, but chiefly in Asia; and the whole produce is stated at 46,800lbs. of the refined metal. The number of workmen employed in all these mines, is estimated at 70,000; and the value of the produce is said to double the expence of working them. Copper is obtained in the Uralian chain, and in other places of the empire, to the amount of 3230 tons, the value of which exceeds £250,000.

Iron abounds in the Russian Empire, and is of much greater value than the copper. In the manufacture of it, about 100 forges and 800 hammers are constantly employed.

The whole produce of the gold and silver mines, belongs to the crown, with a sixth of the copper, and one-eighth of the iron.

Coal has been found in various parts of Russia, and attempts are being made, under the sanction of the Emperor, for discovering it in others.

Salt is one of the most abundant productions of this empire. It is found in the solid rock, at the bottom of the lakes, in liquid springs, and as an incrustation of the plains. Rock salt is obtained about the Ilek, in the district of Ufa, sixty miles from Orenburgh, and in the steppe of the Volga. Among the salt lakes, the largest and most productive are those of Saratof, Astrachan, Taurida, Caucasus, and Irkutsk. From the salt springs, salt is produced in the greatest quantities, in the governments of Perm and Novogorod. No less than 12,000,000 pounds of this article are annually produced in Russia, but the supply does not answer the demand. The annual produce of this commodity might be indefinitely increased, by opening new salt-works, and introducing into the manufacture, of it the improvements of modern science.

Mineral Waters.] The vitriolic spring at Sarepta, near Tzaritzin, is the most famous mineral water in the whole empire, and almost the only one that is frequented.

In the vicinity of the Baikal lake are some springs highly sulphureous. Kamschatka presents a variety of mineral waters; but they do not appear to have been fully examined. Thermal springs are found in various places, and of different temperatures. Naphtha is found in great quantities both in the European and the Asiatic departments of the empire, but is more abundant in the latter. Incrusting springs are numerous, and the mountains contain stalactic caverns, with springs that incrust substances with a coating of iron ore.

CITIES AND EDIFICES.

Astrachan.] Astrachan is the principal city of Asiatic Russia; and next to Moscow and Petersburgh, the most important of the whole empire, with respect to commerce, wealth, and population. It is situated on an island of the Volga called Dolgoi, and is the principal mart of the trade carried on between Russia and Persia. The buildings were formerly very mean, the houses being wholly of wood, and the churches only of brick; but the citizens now construct their houses either of brick, or of a kind of free-stone from the quarries of Tzaritzin, on the banks of the Volga. From this circumstance, the city begins to assume an improved appearance, and can even boast of several handsome structures. It is furnished with a dock-yard, and spacious quays; and its port is often crowded with shipping. Besides the resident inhabitants of Astrachan, who are employed in fishing, and are said to amount to 20,000, about 10,000 fishing-canoes arrive hither every spring, each having on board at the least two persons. One of the great disadvantages of this city is, its being subject to inundations, especially when the wind blows from the south, or south-east. These sea-winds from the Caspian, by raising the waters of the Volga, often cause them to inundate the lower parts of the city. The climate is intensely hot during the summer; and during that season it very seldom rains. There are numerous vineyards in Astrachan, which are generally planted *near the* branches of the Volga, which surround and

intersect the city; but their cultivation is so expensive, that they afford but a very inferior profit. This city is about 45 miles from the Caspian Sea, and 800 miles S. E. from Moscow, in latitude 46 deg. 21 min. N. and longitude 48 deg. 2 min. E.

Tobolsk.] Tobolsk which was formerly considered as the capital of all Siberia, and afterwards that of a province, is now the chief town of Western Siberia. It is fortified with a strong brick wall, having square towers and bastions, and is always well furnished with military stores.

The suburbs which stretch along the banks of the river are occupied by the Tartars, who enjoy the privileges of trade, and the exercise of their religion. A considerable trade with China is still carried on here, but the town has declined in commercial importance. The climate is severe, but, in other respects it is not so uncomfortable an abode, as from its situation might be naturally supposed. Provisions are cheap and abundant; shops and places of amusement are numerous. There are also Booksellers' shops, and French hotels, where may be had French wines, with English porter and beer.

Kiakta.] This town is situated on a little brook of the same name, which serves as the boundary here between Russia and China. It is neatly and regularly built, containing 450 houses, with 4,000 inhabitants; a larger proportion to each dwelling, than is to be found, probably, in any other part of the Russian Empire: no stone buildings are allowed to be erected, besides the church. Beyond this fortress, and immediately opposite to the Chinese town of Maimatschin, is old Kiakta, where only merchants reside, no officer or stranger being permitted to sleep in it, according to an article of the treaty between the two powers. It contains 45 handsome dwellings, many of which have rich stores. Kiakta stands in latitude 52 deg. 56 min. north; longitude 105 east; 4,200 miles from Moscow, and about 1,500 from Pekin.

Irkutsk.] This capital of Eastern Siberia, stands on a

plain, at the right bank of the Angara, which issues from the lake of Baikal, at a point opposite to where the Irkut falls into that river. The houses are mostly of wood; but the public buildings are good, and the streets are wide. This city is the chief mart of the commerce between Russia and China, although the business is transacted at Kiakta. The population amounts to 15,000, including the military. Irkutsk lies in latitude 52 deg. 16 min. 41 sec. north, and longitude 104 deg. 11 min. east.

None of the other towns of these remote regions is of any great importance; many of them, as Bucharest, the capital of Kamschatka, and others, being nothing better than mean wooden villages.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

What is the general character of the climate of Asiatic Russia?

How is the winter beyond 60 degrees of latitude described?

What is the difference of climate between the eastern and western regions of this part of the empire?

In which of its provinces is the grape matured, and where are the summer heats sometimes excessive?

What are the vegetable productions of Siberia?

Where do the rein-deer inhabit in Asiatic Russia, and why are they highly valued?

For what purposes are dogs used in Irkutsk and Kamskatka?

What stratagem is employed by the mountaineers of Siberia in killing the bear, and by the glutton in ensnaring the rein-deer?

Where is the beaver found, and for what are the Mogol horses remarkable?

What animal is the favourite object of chace in Eastern Siberia, and what is the value of its skin?

At what rate of profit did the Russians barter ironware for furs with the Kamschadales, at the time of the conquest of Kamschatka?

What smaller animals contribute to the fur trade of Russia, and where is its principal mart?

How many fishes of different species are caught in the Caspian, in a medium of four years?

What are the productions of the primitive mountains of Asiatic Russia, and of the Uralian quarries?

Where are the chief gold mines, when were they first opened, and what is the amount of their produce?

What is the produce of the silver mines estimated at in pure metal, and what the number of men employed in working them?

Where is copper found in this empire, and to what amount, both in weight and value?

What is the relative value of copper, and how many forges and hammers are employed in the manufacture of iron?

What proportion of the produce of the various mines belongs to the crown?

Has coal been discovered in Russia?

In what different forms has salt been found in this empire, and how many pounds of this article does it annually produce?

Which is the most famous of its mineral waters, where are its sulphureous springs, and what remarkable substance is produced in both its Asiatic and Russian departments?

How is Astrachan situate, and of what trade is it the principal mart?

What was the former style of its buildings, and what circumstance has led to its improvement?

How many resident inhabitants does this city contain, and what number of fishermen is said to visit it every spring?

What are its principal disadvantages, and what account is given of the cultivation of its vines?

Of what part of Siberia is Tobolsk the capital, who reside in its suburbs, and what is its present state?

How is Kiakta situate, and what are the character of its buildings, and the extent of its population?

Opposite to what Chinese town is old Kiatka placed, who constitute its inhabitants, and what persons are forbidden to sleep in it?

Of which department of Siberia is Irkutsk the capital, and on what river does it stand?

What are the character of its buildings and the number of its inhabitants, and between what countries is it the medium of commerce?

GENERAL, CIVIL, AND POLITICAL VIEW

OF THE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

CHAPTER XI.

POPULATION, AND ITS DIVISIONS.

THOUGH the number of the inhabitants of Russia cannot be accurately determined,* it may be fairly estimated at about sixty millions. This amount of population is by no means proportioned to the extent of this vast empire, but its comparative smallness may be traced to the poverty of the soil, and the barbarism of a large portion of the people.

The most populous parts of Russia lie between the 49th and 58th degrees of latitude, and the 40th and 65th degrees of longitude. The relative proportion of the population in different governments, is very remarkable; that of Irkutsk, being to that of Moscow, as one to eight hundred. As Russia has only about twelve persons to a square mile, it is twenty times less populous than England, which is said to have two hundred and forty persons to the same extent.

Russia presents a curious and interesting spectacle in the strange diversity of its inhabitants. It is said to include more than eighty distinct nations, thus exhibiting man in almost every variety of his physical and moral condition. Here the half-brute savage, who feeds on the flesh and is clad in the skins of his prey, and the wandering shepherd, who pitches his tent to day, removes it to-morrow, and exists upon the produce of his flock, are fellow subjects with the industrious husbandman, the

* The Russian census excludes several classes of the people.

ingenious mechanic, the wealthy merchant, and the owner of vast and almost unknown estates. Here are various kindreds, and tribes, and nations, some bowing to the primitive yoke of paternal authority, others preserving a pure democracy; the adherents of monarchy in all its gradations, and of aristocracy in every form: all paying tribute to the same mighty and despotic head. Here is found religion under every aspect, from the gross follies and impurities of Pagan idolatry, to the sublime truths and holy precepts of the Christian faith.

Of the nations, included in the Russian empire, the Slavonians are the most numerous, powerful, and distinguished. They are the Sarmatæ of the ancients, a distinct branch of the human stock, who are supposed to have passed from Asia into Europe after the Cimbri and Goths. Their ancient seats were, probably, Prussia, Poland, and the south of Russia. In the fifth century, they founded Kief and Novogorod, and afterwards, as will be seen in the following history, became incorporated with the Waragers, or Varagians.

The Slavonic Russians are middle-sized, robust, and vigorous, differing little in complexion from the inhabitants of Great Britain. Those towards the north are a more diminutive race. Their characteristic physiognomy, is a small mouth and eyes, thin lips, and white teeth, the nose usually small and turned upwards, the forehead low, the beard thick and bushy, and the hair varying from dark brown to red. Their countenance indicates gravity rather than sprightliness, but is expressive of good nature. Capable of enduring the severest fatigues and hardships, they are inactive, subject to few diseases, and long-lived. With the same general character, the women have a delicate skin, and a fine complexion, which they often destroy by a free use of paint.

The most singular branch of the Russian population of Slavonic origin, is the Cossacks, whose principal seat is now about the shores of the Don, and who so effectually harassed the French in their retreat from Russia. Their territory, which is almost entirely pasture land, is divided into stanitzas or cantons; for many stanitzas now contain more than a single village. To each of these a certain portion of land and fishery is allotted by govern-

ment, and an allowance of corn, according to the returned number of the Cossacks. They are free from all taxes; even from those of salt and distilleries. The distribution of the land to individuals in each stanitza, is settled by the inhabitants and their Ataman. This Ataman was chosen by the people, and was both civil and military commander of the place; but he is now appointed by the crown, and shorn of his power. The Cossacks of the Don are superior to the Russians in person, dress, culture, and mode of life. They are tall and handsome. Their dress consists of a blue jacket, edged with gold, and lined with silk, fastened by hooks across the chest. Beneath the jacket appears a silk waistcoat, the lower part of which is concealed by the sash, while large and long trowsers, either of the same material as the jacket, or of white dimity, kept remarkably clean, are fastened high above the waist and cover the boots. Their cap or helmet is the finest part of their costume; it is adapted to every set of features, and adds considerably to their height. The Cossack in consequence of his allowance, may be called upon to serve for three years, in any part of the world, mounted, armed, and clothed at his own expense. Food, hay, and camp equipage, are furnished by government. Those who have served three years are not usually called upon for foreign service; but serve in the cordon along the Caucasus, and in the duties of the post and police. After twenty years, they become free from service, except the home duties of police, and assisting in the passage of the corn barks over the shallows of the Don. After twenty-five years' service, their freedom is complete.

The Tartars form, after the Slavonians, the most numerous part of the Russian population, being the principal inhabitants of Asiatic Russia. Relics of mighty kingdoms, and descendants of ancient conquerors, they dwell on the northern coasts of the Caspian and Black Seas, the southern branch of the Ural mountains, the steppes and mountains on the frontier of Siberia, between the Tobol and Yenesei, and in colonies among the Russians in the government of Kazan and Taurida. The genuine Tartar is said to be well-formed, of a *middle height*, lean, with an oval head, dark brown

hair, white firm teeth, small mouth, little black expressive eyes, and a fresh and lively complexion. This fine form is lost among some of the tribes, as the Bashkirs and Kirghises. The Tartars perform numerous ablutions, and reckon two hundred and five fast days in a year. They are generally shepherds, and move their habitations according as they find suitable pasture for their flocks and herds.

The Samoiedes who are found from the White Sea to the regions beyond the Yenesei, and in European Russia, from the 65th, and in Siberia from the 75th degree of north latitude, to the shores of the Arctic Ocean, deserve to be mentioned as forming the last grade of human wretchedness. They are about four feet in height, having a flat nose, thin lips, large mouth and ears, with little, black, long, slit eyes. All the winter they live in holes dug in the ground, covered with a conical roof made of boughs or fish bones, fastened with thongs, and lined with the skins of rein-deer. The only vent to this miserable cavern is a hole in the top, which, when their wood is burnt to ashes, they stop with a cake of ice, which transmits a feeble glimmering light.

The people of Russia, may be justly considered as divided into only two orders, the nobles and the peasants. The middle class, if it may be so called, is filled up by foreigners, who once enjoyed all the lucrative branches of commerce, in which only a few of the natives as yet participate.

The nobility are numerous. Their estates are valued by the number of peasants they maintain, and are divided among all the children of both sexes. Several of the nobles possess more than 100,000 peasants; the property belonging to the family of Scheremeter consists of 125,000 slaves. Both in their privileges and their mode of life they nearly resemble the feudal barons of the middle ages. Many of them in the couutry, have households consisting of 500 or 600 peasants, who perform all the various duties of butchers, bakers, tailors, shoemakers, footmen, &c. for which they are selected without discrimination.

To the class of nobles, the right of holding landed property exclusively belongs. They are exempt from military

conscription, and from corporal punishment; they have the right to establish manufactories, to impose what taxes they please upon their vassals, and to inflict any punishment short of death. The noblemen who reside in Petersburgh or Moscow, or who have enjoyed the advantages of foreign travel, are often well-informed and polite; but in general the Russian nobility have little knowledge or refinement. They are inordinately attached to pomp of dress, equipage, and furniture, and even at their social feasts, take their seats according to their rank and importance in the state.

With a few exceptions, the peasants of Russia are all slaves either of the nobles or the crown. The late emperor did much to lessen the evils of the condition of the former, and to facilitate the manumission of both classes. Yet their condition is still degrading and deplorable. About a 6th part of the peasantry are supposed to belong to the crown; these are immediately under the jurisdiction of the imperial officers: many have been enfranchised, and have become burghers. Peasants belonging to individuals are their private property, as much as the cattle on their estates. They pass from one master to another like any other species of chattels, though they cannot be sold out of Russia, or to any other than a nobleman. The rent paid by the crown peasants is fixed; that paid by private peasants is regulated by their means of getting money, or, in other words, is a tax on their industry. Women and children, as well as men, must labour for their master, at any rate of wages that he may be pleased to appoint. As soon as a child is ten years of age, its labour is required; and when he reaches fifteen, each male slave is legally obliged to labour three days in each week for his master. If the proprietor chooses to employ him the other days, he may; in this case, however, he provides him food and clothing. In general, the master instead of exacting the labour of his slave for the stated portion of the week, agrees to receive a rent, and he is bound to furnish him with a house and a certain portion of land, as well as to provide for the aged and infirm. Some nobles send their slaves to St. Petersburgh or Moscow, to be instructed in various trades; and then either employ them on their own estates,

let them to hire, sell to them permission to exercise their trade, or dispose of them at an advanced price.

No slave can quit his village, or, if he be a domestic slave, his master's family without a passport. Imprisonment and hard labour is the punishment for run-away slaves. A master may send his slaves to the public work-house, or into the army; in the latter case, he sends one man next to the levy. A slave may procure his liberty by manumission, by purchase, or by serving in the army or navy.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND RELIGION.

Government.] The government of Russia is an unlimited or despotic monarchy. The sovereign unites in himself the legislative, executive, and judicial authorities, and therefore has the lives and fortunes of his subjects wholly at his disposal. The succession seems to be hereditary, but the regular line of regal descent has been often interrupted by the decree of the reigning prince, or by insurrections of the military and nobles. Sometimes in the course of a night, one prince is deposed, and another raised to the throne, without exciting any commotion.

In administering the affairs of the empire, the Sovereign is generally assisted by different ministers and counsellors of his own appointing. The grand-chancellor is the first officer of state; and under him are ministers for foreign affairs, finances, war, marine, interior, religious worship, public instruction, and police. The different councils, in which the ministers preside, are called Imperial colleges: the members, with a number of other statesmen, appointed by the Emperor, amounting altogether to thirty five, compose the supreme council, which is entrusted with the power of controlling all public affairs. The cabinet, which is not reckoned among the Imperial colleges, consists usually of ten persons, including the high steward of the household. This council manages the Prince's private affairs, examines petitions, despatches, accounts, watches over the revenue, and receives appeals from the senate. The senate is a public body, established by the late emperor in 1801, and of

which his imperial majesty is the president. This body, as the sanctuary of the laws, watches over their execution both in civil and criminal affairs. It decides doubtful questions that arise in the tribunals, issues the edicts or ukases of the prince, receives reports from the inferior departments, and forms a court from whose decrees there lies no appeal except to the emperor. All the deliberations of this body are determined by the votes of two-thirds of its members; whereas, in the other departments, unanimity is required.

Law] The civil law in Russia is a collection of rules borrowed from other states of Europe, arranged under the direction of Catherine II. In order to ensure a more steady execution of the laws, and a more impartial administration of justice, she divided the whole empire into a number of vice-royalties or governments. Each of these governments has its general-governor, governor, and vice-governor, with several courts. The governments are divided into circles, which have likewise their respective officers and courts; and judges are appointed by the crown.

These institutions, it is generally allowed, have been highly beneficial in their results. Many abuses have been corrected, and the lot of millions has been improved. But that an impartial administration of justice has been secured, cannot be admitted, so long as the peasants are slaves, and the power of the military is employed to enforce the performance of civil duties. The criminal law admits of capital punishment for high treason only; and the late Emperor Alexander abolished torture. But what from the effects of the Knout,* the fatigue of tra-

* Felons are sentenced to the knout, branding, and banishment to Siberia. The punishment of the knout is one of the most dreadful in the world, and is esteemed so ignominious, that the very touch of the instrument, by which it is inflicted, is thought an abomination. It is thus described by an eye-witness. A block of wood was placed firm and well-secured, about three feet high, having three cavities in the top, to receive the neck and arms. The criminal was then placed with his breast to the board, being strongly bound to it by the neck and the upper part of his arms, the rope being passed closely under the flexure of both knees. Thus bowed forward, the first stroke of the knout (a kind of flail, with a heavy wooden thong) was given, and each repeated lash tore the flesh from the bone. A few seconds elapsed between each; and for the first ten or twelve, the sufferer cried out terribly; but these cries soon subsided into fainting groans; and in a few minutes nothing was heard but the sickening splash of the knout.

velling nearly 5,000 miles in fetters, and the unhealthy state of the mines, it is probable that as many criminals suffer death in Russia, as where the laws require at once the forfeiture of their lives.

The prisons have recently undergone important improvements, and are now under the inspection of a prison society, which is honoured with the imperial sanction. The late Walter Venning, Esq. who trod closely in the steps of the benevolent Howard, was the means of forming this important institution. On his arrival in St. Petersburgh, in 1817, he examined, with the highest permission, the prisons, houses of correction, and poor-houses in St. Petersburgh, Tver, and Moscow. Many reforms and improvements were made, according to his suggestion, and particular attention was thereby excited to this department. He presented a memorial to the Emperor Alexander, in which he forcibly described the advantages which would result from the improvement of prison-discipline; in consequence of which, his Imperial Majesty sanctioned the formation of a society for the improvement of the prisons of the capital. The example of Mrs. Fry, in this country, has led also to the formation of a Ladies' Committee; and five prisons are placed under their care. In the following year, an Auxiliary Prison Society was established at Cronstadt, in consequence of Mr. Venning's efforts. Since the death of this admirable man, the exertions of the Prison Society, in St. Petersburgh, have been zealously continued, and have even been directed to the relief of convicts on their journey to Siberia. In 1822, 7,000 of these wretched beings passed through the city of Orel, on the borders of that land of exile, who partook of the bounty of this

After a full hour had been occupied in this work of cruelty and torture, the criminal was raised a little from the block, and an instrument, like a brush, with iron teeth, driven with violence into his temples and forehead. The parts thus pierced, were then rubbed with gunpowder, to remain, should the sufferer survive, as an indelible mark of the punishment he had endured.

While this terrible operation was performed, the culprit remained senseless, but he was soon roused to the perception of the keenest torments. A pair of pincers, resembling monstrous curling irons, were inserted up the nose, and the nostrils torn away in a manner more shocking than can be described. This final torture recalled the sense of feeling to the torpid body of the criminal, who was presently conveyed back to his prison, from thence, if he recovered, to be transported to Siberia for life. The punishment, in this instance, was called *knouting without mercy*, but in inferior cases, it is the same in nature, though not in extent.

excellent institution in clothing, food, and medical attendance. Other auxiliary societies, besides that at Cronstadt, have been formed.

Religion.] The established religion of Russia is that of the Greek or Eastern Church. This Church resembles the Church of Rome in the pomp of its worship, and the superstition of its rites; but it is distinguished from that communion by a more tolerant spirit, and a purer creed. In the Greek Church, supererogation, indulgencies, and dispensations, are utterly disallowed, nor does it make pretensions to infallibility. The doctrine of purgatory it also disclaims, and determines nothing positively concerning the state of departed souls; but it admits the invocation of saints, and performs prayers and services for the dead. This Church also rejects the worship of images, though it allows the use of pictures, to assist the devotions of the ignorant, and pays a superstitious regard to the relics of martyrs and monks.

In the Greek Church there are seven sacraments, viz. baptism, the chrism, or baptismal unction, the eucharist, confession, ordination, marriage, and the holy oil, or extreme unction.

On the eighth day after its birth, the infant is carried to the church, and receives its name; that of the saint to which the day is dedicated, being given to the child, in addition to any other which the parents may have chosen. But its baptism does not take place until a considerable time after, when this rite is administered by trine immersion.

The chrism, or sacred unction, answers to confirmation in the church of Rome. It immediately follows the immersion at baptism, when the priest anoints the child or proselyte on the principal parts of the body, with the sign of the cross. Seven days after the application of this consecrated unction, the votary goes through the ceremony of ablution; and is now prepared for the concluding rite, called that of the tonsure, and which consists in shearing the hair of the baptized in the form of a cross.

At the end of the baptism, the priest usually ties a little cross of gold, or some other precious material,

round the infant's neck; but this is not an ordinance of the church, though generally practised.

In the preparation of the Eucharist or Lord's supper, warm water is mixed with the wine, and laymen receive the bread sopped in the cup. The clergy take the elements separate.

The Confession of the Greek Church appears to be very similar to that of the Church of Rome. At the end of the absolution, the priest signs the penitent with the cross, and having caused him to kiss the gospels and the crucifix, suffers him to depart.

The office of the holy oil, or anointing the sick, is performed with the following ceremonies. A table being placed, a dish of wheat is set upon it, and upon the wheat an empty lamp is deposited to receive the holy oil, which is usually taken from the consecrated lamps before the image of Jesus; and having been there, it is considered as doubly hallowed. Seven small twigs (the number of the priests who are to use them), are bound together with a piece of cotton, and stuck in the wheat. The holy gospel is laid upon it; and a taper is given to each priest. Seven of them stand round the table. The first takes the censer, and incenses the table in every part; and also all the persons who are present. Then standing at the table, and looking towards the east, he blesses God, and petitions for his mercy. Many prayers follow, addressed to the Father, the Son, and the Virgin, in which a blessing is invoked to accompany the application of the oil, and to heal the patient of his infirmities and sins. The first priest then taking one of the twigs, and dipping it in the holy oil anoints the sick person cross-ways on the forehead, the nostrils, the breasts, the mouth, the chest, and both sides of the hands; saying a long prayer addressed to the Divine Persons as Almighty; and to the Saints as mediators. The second priest takes another twig, and repeats the ceremony with other prayers; then in like manner and with like invocations, follow the other priests until the seventh has finished. At this conclusion, the sick man, if he be able, stands or sits in the midst of the priests; but in case of his being too weak, they stand around his bed, and the first priest opening the

gospel, with the letters downwards, places it upon the invalid's head. He then utters a prayer over it; and raising it again, presents it to the man to kiss. More invocations are added by all the priests, and the benediction is given in these words: "Christ our true God, through the prayers of his most honourable mother, of his honourable and life-giving cross, of the holy glorious apostle James, first bishop of Jerusalem, and brother of all Saints, heal, pardon, and bless thee!"

The sick person bows his head and repeats, "Bless me a sinner!" after which the benediction is repeated; the priests depart, and he lays him down in peace.

The funeral ceremonies of the Russians are thus described. On a man breathing his last in Russia, the first office is to close his eyes and mouth; the next is washing the body with water; and then the priest is sent for to perfume the deceased with incense. It is performed with prayers and hymns. But persons of rank are solicitous to carry this rite yet further: and when the body is placed in the coffin, a succession of priests attend it day and night, with tapers burning, chanting hymns, and reading portions of the holy Scriptures. When the time of watching is expired, and all things are ready for the interment, the relations are then called together, who are to appear as mourners, and bear up the pall. But before the coffin is closed, the ceremony of *the kiss* must be performed, which is the last act of respect to the body. The priests first, and then the relations and friends take their farewell of the deceased, either by kissing him or the coffin. The order of the burial service is as follows:—

After the priest has poured forth his incense from the holy censer upon the corpse and the persons present, he gives the benediction, and the choristers chant the response.

The coffin is then carried into the church, the priest going before with a lighted taper, and the deacon with the censer. The procession being stopped, and the body set down in the sanctuary, the ninety-first psalm is sung in the most solemn tones.

After this follow other anthems, some of which are *remarkable* for their beauty and pathos, and several short

prayers for the pardon and beatitude of the deceased. Then the priest, turning towards the body of the deceased, says:

"May thy memory endure for ever, O, our brother, who art worthy to be blessed, and to be had in remembrance."

The choir repeats the same thrice; and after that, the priest pronounces the absolution, through the mediation of Jesus Christ, aloud. The corpse is then laid in the grave, while the funeral anthem to the Trinity is sung over it. When it is lowered into the earth, the priest takes a shovel of dust, and casts it cross-ways upon the coffin, saying:

"The earth is the Lord's, and the fulness thereof; the round world, and they that dwell therein."

After which he pours oil out of the lamp, and scatters some incense over the lid. The grave is then covered in; and the ceremony ends with a prayer to the Saviour, for the rest and eternal happiness of the deceased.

A vulgar opinion has been propagated, that in the Greek church it is usual to put into the coffin with dead perons, a writing called a passport to heaven. This idea is a mere fable. A paper is often placed in the hands of deceased persons, when they are borne to the grave; but it is a confession of their misdeeds, and not a license to carry to the presence of an offended Deity.

The Russian Church is under the direction of the Holy Legislative Synod. This spritual council was at first to consist of twelve persons; but the number of them is now indefinite, and their appointment depends entirely on the will of the sovereign.

At the head of this Synod there is always a layman, who sits there on the part of the crown, and who has the power to negative all its resolutions, until they are laid before the Emperor.

The Russian clergy are divided into regular and secular. The former are all monks, and the latter are the parochial clergy. The superior clergy are divided into metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops, who are indiscriminately styled Archirés. Promotion to the rank of bishop, depends entirely on the will of the Sovereign.

After the Archirés, the next in order of dignity are

those who in Russia are called the black clergy. These consist of the chiefs of monasteries, from amongst whom the bishops are always chosen, the chiefs of small convents, those who perform divine service in the monasteries, and the monks. The members of this order, and also the Archirés, are obliged to lead rigid and recluse lives; are forbidden animal food; and are condemned to a life of celibacy. They compose the regular clergy, and have the whole powers and dignities of the Russian Church vested exclusively in them.

The secular priests are called the white clergy, and consist of protoirés, priests, and deacons, together with the readers and sacristans. In 1805, the number of the former class of this order, in actual employ, was 44,487; and that of the latter, 54,239.

The duties of the secular priests in Russia, are very laborious. The service of the church, which must be performed three times a day, and is of inordinate length, together with the numerous and complicated ceremonies attendant on the administration of the sacraments, occupy the greater part of their time, and leave them but little leisure for study. To this cause, in part, must probably be attributed their want of zeal and activity in advancing the true interests of religion and morality. It is but justice, however, to state, that many of the secular clergy are vigilant and useful pastors of their flocks, and that some of their discourses are distinguished by souud reasoning, and luminous views of the Gospel of Christ. In most of the churches now, both in towns and villages, a sermon is preached every Sunday, and on the chief holidays. In some of them, may be also heard a homily read by the priest from a printed book, when the duties of his office engross nearly the whole of his time.

The Russian clergy are exempted from all civil taxes. They are also exempted from corporal punishment, even in the case of having committed capital crimes; and, according to a ukase of 1801, they are permitted to hold lands.

The whole Russian empire is divided into 36 dioceses, which, in extent, are nearly the same with the division of the empire into governments. In these there are 483 *cathedrals, and* 26,598 churches, which are, in general,

magnificent buildings. They are now mostly constructed of brick, are generally of the form of a cross, and have five domes, with crosses, which in monasteries and cathedrals, and even in some parish churches are gilded, and have a splendid appearance.

The inner walls and domes of the churches are covered with scriptural paintings, which in general represent the most interesting scenes of our Saviour's history. The ikonostas is always richly gilded and ornamented, and the pictures of the saints adorned with gold and silver, pearls, and precious stones.

The service of the church is said to be be contained in upwards of 20 volumes folio, all in the Slavonian language, which, though the ancient language of the country, is not well understood by the great body of the people. Twelve of these volumes, one for every month, contain the particular services which are used for the festivals of the saints, who are so numerous in the Greek calendar, that there are more of them than there are days in the year.

The lives of the saints are contained in several folio volumes, which are not now read in churches, but are sometimes read in monasteries, at the matins or morning service.

Both in monasteries and parish churches, the service is performed three times a day. It begins in the evening of the preceding day, as among the Jews; the vespers at sunset; the matins between four and five in the morning; and the liturgy, or communion service, between nine and ten. The greater part of the service consists of psalms and hymns, which, according to the rules of the church, ought to be sung, but are now commonly read. The length of the service will account for the unintelligible manner in which it is commonly performed; for the priests and readers, in order to get the more quickly through it, have fallen into the practice of repeating, and reading the hymns and prayers so quickly, and in such a tone of voice, as renders the greater part of them impossible to be understood by the congregation. The Gospel, however, is always read slowly, and in a distinct and audible voice; so that it is much more intelligible, from being thus read, than many *other parts of the service.*

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

What is the probable amount of the population of the Russian empire, and what is the number of persons to a square mile?

Which are the three principal divisions of the Russian population, and what are their distinguishing characteristics?

Into how many orders is society divided in Russia?

In what does the property of the nobles chiefly consist, what privileges do they enjoy, and what is their general character?

Which are the two great classes of peasantry or slaves, and how is their present state described?

What is the nature of the government of Russia?

How are the supreme council, the cabinet, and the senate constituted, and what are their respective duties?

In what does the civil law of this empire consist, and to whom does it owe its principal improvements?

What is the great obstacle to the impartial administration of justice in Russia, and how is the punishment of the knout inflicted?

To what two great philanthropists are the improvements in its prison-discipline to be ascribed?

What is the established religion of the empire, and in what particulars does it differ from that of the Roman Catholic church?

How many sacraments are there in the Greek church?

With what particular ceremonies are baptism, chrism, confession, and interment performed in this church?

Under whose direction are ecclesiastical affairs placed in Russia, and to what control are they subject?

Into what orders are the Russian clergy divided?

Who constitute the superior clergy, and what is their general appellation?

What name is given to the clergy who are next in dignity to the Archirés, and to what regulations are they obliged to submit?

What name is given to the white clergy, of whom do they consist, and what was their number in 1805?

How is the general inferior state of the secular priesthood in Russsia to be accounted for?

What are the peculiar privileges of the Russian clergy?

Into how many dioceses is this empire divided, and what number of cathedrals and churches are they said to contain?

Of what material are the churches generally built, and what are their external and internal decorations?

In how many volumes is the service of the Russian church contained, and what renders the performance of it uninstructive to the people in general?

CHAPTER XII.

LANGUAGE, LITERATURE, AND EDUCATION.

Language.] The Russian language is a dialect of the Slavonian, and though harsh, is said to possess great copiousness and force. The original Slavonic bears a considerable affinity to the Sanscrit; but of this primitive dialect, no monument has reached our times. The invention of the Slavonic alphabet was coeval with the introduction of Christianity into Russia, and is unanimously ascribed to Cyrill or Constantine, surnamed the Philosopher, on account of his learning. This invention, however, seems to have consisted in nothing more than the adaptation of the Greek characters, so far as they went, to express the sounds of the new language, with the addition of others apparently of native origin.

As Russian words contain unusual combinations of letters, and appear particularly difficult of pronunciation, a few remarks on their orthography will not be deemed unnecessary.

The diphthongs ai, ei, oi, unless the i be thus marked ï, are pronounced with a mellow, liquid sound, as if they were written aiye, eiye, oiye. Thus in Alexei the i is pronounced, as if the word were written Alexeye.

An, in, on, are pronounced as if they were followed by a mute e. Thus Ivan, Panin, Nikon, must be pronounced Ivane, Panine, Nikone. The Russians have no nasal sounds.

This language has a duplicate of the letter i, but different as to sound. The former is pronounced as in French, or as the English ee. The other, which, from want of a proper characteristic, we represent by a y, and is called by the Russians yéry, has a fuller and more mellow sound, something like the French triphthong oui; pronounced very short.

The o is often pronounced like a. The proper name written Golitzin in Russian, is pronounced Galitzine, (Galitzeen.) Kazak is rather said than Kozak. Po-

temkin is pronounced Patiumkine, because the o is changed into a, and the medial e frequently transformed into iu. These remarks will account to the reader for the different writing of a or o in Russian words, that are adopted into English.

The consonant j, wherever placed, is pronounced as in the French words je, jamais. Thus ostrojski, is pronounced as if written ostroge-ski, a pronunciation which greatly softens the word to the ear.

The Russians give their sovereign the title of Tzar, and his consort that of Tzaritza, writing them by the character which they call tzi, and answering to our tz. Foreigners therefore do wrong to write it czar and czarina. The latter word belongs neither to Russian, nor to any other language. The son of the tzar should also be called tzarevitch and not czarovitz.

The v is pronounced as in English. Golovkin is pronounced Golove-kine; Novgorod, is pronounced Nove-gorode.

The Russians pronounce the v like an f at the end of words. Thus they call Romanov, Romanof; Rostov, Rostof and Kiev, Kief.; hence these words will be found written in both ways in English works.

The w of the Germans and English is not found in the Russian alphabet. It is therefore improper to write Suwarrow (the name of a well-known general) for Suvarof. This mistake has arisen from confounding the sound of the German with that of the English w.

The Russian language has been much cultivated of late; a variety of grammars and dictionaries have been completed, numerous translations into it are constantly being made, and the Russian Academy is indefatigable in reducing it to a standard of purity. The pronunciation is extremely difficult to foreigners. The Russian grammarians themselves are not agreed concerning the number of letters in their alphabet. Some admit forty-one, some limit them to thirty-one, while others, with greater propriety, fix their number at thirty-eight. The numerous irregularities of the declensions, the peculiarities and the variation of the accent, are sources of great perplexity to the learner. But the conjugations are said to be superlatively difficult, almost every verb

having many peculiarities that render it irregular. These difficulties, together with the want of a grammar, compiled by natives, for the use of foreigners, have greatly retarded the progress and extension of the Russian language. It is proper, however, to remark that the Academy of Sciences, at St. Petersburgh, have formed the plan of a rule for the manner of writing Russian words with foreign characters, and foreign words with Russian characters. This plan consists of a vocabulary, drawn up by a committee of the Academy, and composed of two alphabets, German and French, by means of which the proper orthography and pronunciation of words in the Russian language, are rendered intelligible to foreigners.

Literature.] The literature of Russia is yet in an infant state. At the time of Vladimir's conversion, the empire had not emerged from barbarism. Learning, as in other countries, followed in the train of Christianity, but its illuminations were soon obscured, and almost extinguished, amidst civil wars and foreign invasions. At the time of the subversion of the Eastern empire by the Turks, such was the barbarism of Russia, not yet freed from the Tartar yoke, that notwithstanding the conformity of religion, few of the learned Greeks took refuge in that country. Most of them preferred Italy as an asylum. Even at the revival of letters, about the commencement of the sixteenth century, this empire was rent with intestine commotions, as dreadful as any on historical record, and its people could have little inclination or leisure for the peaceful pursuits of literature. The two Ivans made some efforts to promote the mental culture of their subjects; but the subsequent troubles of the empire nearly annihilated the effects of their exertions.

Russia, like other nations, had even in her dark ages, her inventors of legends, her martyrologists, and her writers of annals. Among the last-mentioned was Nestor, a monk of Kief, who flourished about the close of the eleventh century. This monk appears to have been endowed with superior intellect, and is distinguished by a simplicity of style formed upon that of

the sacred writers. His intercourse with the reigning family, his perusal of the Byzantine historians, the opportunities he enjoyed of collecting the oral traditions of his country, and the numerous historical monuments to which he obtained access by his residence at Kief, enabled him to transmit the knowledge of important facts connected with the history of Russia, which must otherwise have perished with the lapse of time. His annals are still held in the highest esteem, and in the year 1809, were reprinted at Gottingen, with a German translation.

At the accession of Peter the Great, the Russians were several centuries behind the other Europeans in learning and civilization; and notwithstanding his zealous endeavours to promote their intellectual improvement, Russian literature must be considered a barren subject, till the auspicious reign of Catherine, who by her example and patronage greatly encouraged its cultivation. But even during this period, most of the principal writers, Pallas, Muller, &c being foreigners, used the German language, and therefore can hardly be said to have promoted the interests of Russian literature.

During the reign of Paul, the press was laid under the most rigorous restrictions; and the efforts of genius were consequently repressed. Previous to the reign of this infatuated monarch, the examination and licensing of books was entrusted to the chief magistrates of the respective capitals; but he appointed inferior licensers for that purpose. Under him, nothing was permitted to be printed in the large office of Reval, except advertisements, play-bills, hymns for the Reval hymn-book, and the weekly newspaper, the articles contained in which were subjected to a strict previous examination. A wine merchant in Reval was desirous of having some tickets printed, for the purpose of distinguishing his different sorts of wine. At first the licenser would not permit any of the French wines to have their names printed, and when at last he relented with respect to this point, the printing of the words *St. Uber's* wine, and *bishop*, a well-known drink composed of wine and oranges, was deemed by him quite inadmissible, because St. denotes saintship, and ought not to be profaned by being

affixed to a wine bottle, and because bishop denotes an ecclesiastial dignity; and therefore should not be exposed to a similar profanation.

The Emperor Alexander was the patron of learning and liberal institutions, but his enlightened views were frequently thwarted by the narrow-minded policy of more than one class of his subjects.

Original publications in Russia are still very few, the best books being almost all translations. The press remains under a censorship, the effect of which is to deprive the public of several works which might promote, or rather excite a spirit of enquiry. The professors, and higher teachers in the towns, are foreigners, generally Germans. Newspapers and periodical publications are of recent introduction. Moscow, in 1820, could boast of only one magazine. Petersburgh has several weekly and monthly tracts, but they consist chiefly of translated essays, and poetical effusions. In poetry, the Russians have a number of versifiers, but few authors of distinction. Sumarakof, a dramatic, and Lomonosof, a lyric poet, are, however, honourable exceptions, as is also Karamsin, who is not only a superior poet, but a prose writer of considerable eminence.

Education.] Education was much neglected in the Russian empire till a late period, and in many parts of it; is still in a very imperfect state. Seminaries, great and small, have for a century past existed in the chief towns; but the villages and open country have been immersed in almost as great ignorance as the interior of Africa. In 1802 was issued an imperial ukase, presenting a systematic plan of education for the whole empire, under the charge of the directing Synod of the church. By this act were established six Universities, viz: at St. Petersburg, Moscow, Wilna, Dorpat, (in Livonia) Charkov in the south, and Kasan in the east. Each of the 51 great provinces of the empire has a gymnasium; each of the circles or lesser divisions a high school, while an elementary school is, or ought to be established in each, or in every two parishes, according to their population. The sum set apart for these seminaries, great and small, is from £150,000 to

£200,000 a year. The parish schools, however, are not generally established, and where they are, are indifferently conducted. The peasantry are often unable, from distance or poverty, to send their children to them. In families of condition, education is commonly superintended by tutors, who are often ignorant or unprincipled; and therefore an act was lately passed, which excluded from the higher public employments, all young men, who have not been educated at a University.

The imperial ukase of 1802, prescribes the objects of study in the schools; but these are too numerous, and the result is, that the knowledge, even of attentive students, is often superficial. Happily, however, there exists to a certain degree, the means of remedying this, by pursuing the branch intended as a profession, at the special schools, which are established for navigation, the military art, painting, the commercial line, mining, the care of forests, &c. Government assistance, to a considerable extent, is afforded for the education of the youth of both sexes. The number of young men who receive such aid was in 1820, about 9,000. They are cadets for the land and sea service, or student sin Theology, or pupils in painting and the fine arts.

ARTS, MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE, AND REVENUE.

Arts and manufactures.] The privilege of engaging in arts and manufactures in Russia was, till lately, confined to the nobility and the first and second class of artizans. But the emperor Alexander, by an imperial ukase, dated December, 1818, removed this obstacle to improvement.

The arts in Russia have received very considerable improvement within the last century. Most of the arts that relate to luxuries are exercised at St. Petersburgh, to such an extent, and in such perfection, as to render it unnecessary to import these articles from other countries. The chief works of this kind are those of gold and silver goods, which are finished in so high a taste, that quan-

tities of them are sold in the shops that deal in English or French goods, and to which they are not inferior.

Joinery is exercised as well by the Russians as the Germans; but the cabinet-maker's art is principally confined to foreigners, among whom the Germans are distinguished. The artists of that nation occasionally execute masterpieces, made at intervals of leisure under the influence of genius and taste, and for which they find a ready sale in the residence of a great and magnificent court. Thus, some years since, one of these made a cabinet, which for invention, taste, and excellency of workmanship, exceeded every thing of the kind that had ever been seen. The price of this piece of art was 7000 rubles; and the artist declared, that with this sum he should not be paid for the years of application he had bestowed upon it. Another monument of German ingenuity, is preserved in the Academy of Sciences, in the model of a bridge after a design of the state counsellor Von Gerhard. This bridge, which would be the most magnificent work of the kind, if the possibility of its construction could be proved, consists of eleven arches, a drawbridge for letting vessels pass, distinct raised footways, landing places &c. The beauty of this model, and the excellency of its execution, leave every thing of the sort very far behind. The empress Catherine II. rewarded the artificer with a present of 4000 rubles.

Both these works of art have been, however, far exceeded by a writing desk made by Rœntgen, a Moravian, who lived several years in Petersburgh, and embellished the palaces of the Empress and principal nobility with the astonishing productions of his art. On opening this amazing desk, there appears in front a beautiful group of bas-relief figures, finely gilt in bronze; which, by the slightest pressure on a spring, vanishes away, giving place to a magnificent writing-flat, inlaid with gems. The space above this flat is devoted to the keeping of valuable papers, or money. The bold hand that should dare to invade this spot would immediately be its own betrayer; for, at the least touch of the table part, the most charming strains of soft and plaintive music instantly begin to play upon the ear, the organ

whence it proceeds occupying the lower part of the desk behind. Several small drawers for holding the materials for writing, &c. likewise start forward by the pressure of their springs, and shut again as quickly, without leaving behind a trace of their existence. If it is desired to change the table-part of the bureau into a reading-desk, from the upper part a board springs forward, from which, with incredible velocity, all the parts of a commodious and well-contrived reading-desk expand, and take their proper places. For this wonderful piece of mechanism, the inventor was paid 25,000 rubles by the Empress, who presented it to the Academy of Sciences, to be deposited in their Museum.

The Russian skill in Architecture is evinced by the magnificent buildings which adorn the cities of St. Petersburgh and Moscow, and more especially by the superb palaces which have already been described.

In reviewing the state of literature and the arts among the Russians, it has been properly remarked, that in whatever country we seek original genius, we must go to Russia for a talent of imitation. In this talent they exceed all other nations. The meanest Russian slave has been found able to accomplish the most intricate and most delicate works of mechanism,—to copy, with his single hand, what has demanded the joint labors of the best workmen in France, or England. We find at Petersburgh few men of abstruse acquirements, yet musicians, poets, and painters in abundance; few works of art that are impressed with the spirit of originality, but many that display the most correct and refined taste. The Academy of Arts is fostered by the superintendence of the crown; and from the revenues allotted to it, it is well furnished with models from the antique, as well as other matters suited to its institution. The labours of the students exhibit some of the highest specimens of imitative excellence; their designs in architecture are of great merit, and their pictures possess a free style of execution, combined with chasteness and harmony of colour, seldom equalled in any school. Their music is framed in the Italian style.

Among the articles most extensively manufactured are linen, leather, isinglass, and kaviar, of which large

quantities are exported. The two latter are made in great abundance on the banks of the Volga, and other great rivers in the south. Silk, cotton, woollen-cloth, sail-cloth, hats, lace, glass, porcelain, oil, soap, candles, cordage, and paper, are likewise manufactures found in various parts of the empire. Those of pitch, tar, pot-ash, alum, saltpetre, and gunpowder, with iron, brass, and copper works, are numerous: nor is any one more extensive or more productive to the revenue, than that of spirituous liquors. Cannon, and all other implements of war, are made in great numbers; and several steam-engines have been purchased in England, for the improvement of the different national establishments. Breweries and sugar-refineries have likewise been introduced.

Trade and Commerce.] The fisheries of the Volga, the Ural, and other rivers, form an important part of Russian trade. Those of the last named river belong exclusively to the Cossacks, to whom they have proved a medium of extensive wealth. The manner in which they are conducted is thus described:—

The river Ural flows into the Caspian Sea. When the winter approaches, the fish ascend the river, in order to find refuge from the storms that infest the sea at that season; and in the course of their ascent, they stop at different places where they find sufficient water and food. These places the Cossacks carefully observe, beforehand, and wait patiently at them till the river is frozen over. On the first of January, the fishery begins upon the whole river, from the capital town Uralski, down into the Caspian sea. Above and below the several banks of fish, the hetman first causes the river to be blockaded by means of large double nets extended across its whole breadth, which is effected by cutting in the ice a ditch two feet broad. As soon as it is certain that the fish cannot escape, the governor of Orenburg, and the hetman of the Cossacks, repair to a certain place on the bank of the river, and on both sides of it above 30,000 Cossacks are ready, each in his own sledge, drawn by a strong and swift-footed horse, and armed with a harpoon, and an axe. By the order of the governor, a can-

non is fired as a signal for beginning; upon which the Cossacks all rush on the river, and drive all speed to the fish-bank, enclosed with nets, which is usually some versts distant. Those who arrive first are praised not only for the swiftness of their horses, but for their courage, for this racing is attended with no little danger; because, if any one should be so unskilful, or so unfortunate, as to overturn his sledge, all those that follow would infallibly drive over him. As soon as the Cossacks reach the place where there is such a bank of fish, they immediately cut a hole in the ice with their axe, and thrust in their harpoon, and the quantity of fish is so great that they never fail to strike one at every time. The terrible noise caused by the driving of 30,000 sledges over the frozen river naturally terrifies the fish, which try all to escape at once, but are hindered by the nets. The greatest difficulty for the fishermen is to draw out the fish, and they are often obliged to call their comrades; for they sometimes spear fish weighing from 150 to 200 lbs.; but in such cases they must divide the fish with him who assists them. This fishery continues the whole winter, during which the Cossacks dwell in tents on both sides of the river. They proceed successively from one bank of fish to another, down to the mouth of the river. During this time, the river affords a very peculiar spectacle; both its surface and its two banks are covered with a countless multitude of men, who are in constant motion. Traders come from the remotest parts of the empire, to buy the fish immediately from the Cossacks, with a great train of sledges, all ladeu with salt; they constantly attend the fishery in its progress down the river to the sea. Every evening, the Cossacks sell to them what they have caught during the day, and receive payment on the spot. The merchants send the fish (which are frozen quite hard) to Moscow, Casan, &c. and also an incredible quantity of the salted row of sturgeon, known under the name of kaviar. The day when the fishery begins, the governor has the fish, which the Cossacks send as a present to the emperor, chosen from amongst the whole number, and transmits them without delay to St. Petersburgh, where they arrive quite frozen. The quantity

is fixed, and is said to be very considerable. In summer, the Cossacks also carry on the fishery; but it is far less productive, and, as the fish will not keep in this season, the Cossacks salt them immediately, and send them to the neighbouring towns for sale. The very best of the fish which are found in the Ural, are sold at not more than a half-penny, or three farthings a pound.

The chief seaports of Russia are Revel and Libau in the Baltic, with Cherson and Nicolaief on the Euxine. Archangel is of importance, from being the only shipping place of consequence, along a remote and dreary coast. There are about 28 seaports, great and small, on the Russian coasts, and so few are the great roads in this vast empire, that a few years since, the number of land custom-houses on all the frontiers together, was only about 40. The chief exports from Russia are iron, copper, hemp, flax, linen, sail-cloth, cordage, grain, tobacco, linseed, saltpetre, and oil; with timber, plank, masts, pitch, tar, resin, pot-ash, wax, tallow, hides, candles, isinglass, knives, and horse-hair. Leather is the most important manufacture exported, and the most strenuous exertions are made to keep the method by which it is prepared a secret. The imports are sugar, coffee, cotton, and other colonial goods; superfine woollens, cotton cloth, silks, dyed stuffs, wine, brandy, &c. It is supposed that one half of the trade of Russia is carried on within the confines of the capital. The trade of Russia with Persia is by the Caspian, and the caravans that travel to Orenburg, a few degrees north of that sea. Its trade with China is carried on from the frontier of Siberia, and consists in the exchange of furs, iron, copper, and other minerals, for Chinese silks, tea, musk, tiger skins, and a few other articles. The annual amount of of this commerce is between three and four millions of rubles. With Turkey the Russians exchange kaviar, soap, leather, iron, and other produce, for olive oil, wines, rice, and fruits. Of the whole foreign trade of Russia, more than half is with Great Britain; the different articles furnished have already been specified. The total value of the imports into Russia, varies from 10 to 15 millions sterling, and that of the exports is nearly similar.

Revenue.] The finances of Russia are well known to be in an involved and ruinous condition. The amount of the national debt cannot, indeed, be exactly ascertained; but it is believed to be not less than 1,000 millions of rubles. This sum, though not large, when compared with the immense size of the empire, presses hard on the government, as it consists for the most part of foreign loans, which require to be paid in gold and silver, while there is scarcely any thing in circulation but paper and copper money, which has become depreciated to one-fourth of its nominal value. Numerous and extensive as the different branches of the revenue, are, and trifling as are the salaries with which the servants of government are paid, compared with those granted in other states, it is only in times of peace that any thing even approaching to a balance can be kept up between the revenue and the expenditure. The total of the former is loosely estimated at £15,000,000 sterling, while that of the latter is said to have exceeded double that sum in the war of 1812 and 1813.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

What is the character of the Russian language?

When was the Slavonic alphabet invented, and who was its inventor?

How are ai, ei, oi, an, in, on, o, j, and v pronounced in Russian?

When was learning introduced into Russia, and what events interrupted its progress?

Who was the principal historian of Russia, during her dark ages, and what was his character?

Under whose reign was literature first cultivated among the Russians, and who were the principal writers of that period?

Which of the Russian monarchs laid absurd restrictions on the press, and what striking example of these restrictions is recorded?

What prevents the circulation of useful literary productions in this empire?

Of what do the chief periodical works of Petersburgh consist, and who are the principal Russian poets?

What provision was made for education by the ukase of 1802?

In what respect were the regulations of this ukase defective, and in what instance have they been neglected?

To whom was the privilege of engaging in arts and manufactures formerly restricted, and when, and by whom, was this restriction removed?

the European and Asiatic armies; and as their place is continually being filled up by fresh conscriptions levied on the peasantry, an inexhaustible source is thus opened for the supply of deficiencies occasioned by disease or the sword, or to augment the degree of military strength, as particular exigencies may require. It must not be supposed, however, that the whole force created by this and other means is available for the purpose of extensive aggression. The government being despotic, renders it necessary to maintain a considerable military force in the two capitals, and generally in the towns throughout the empire. The immense frontier also, beginning at the Baltic, and stretching to the sea of Ochotsk, requires a cordon along the whole of its line. Russia, therefore, cannot bring into the field any thing like the strength usually ascribed to her. Probably, the number of men on whom she can reckon as capable of engaging in actual service does not exceed 600,000; and even this force cannot be regularly and permanently effective, being the utmost that, when pushed, it is in the power of the government to produce.

The Russian soldiers, as individuals, are ignorant, and dull, but collectively, they afford a striking example of the power of discipline. In action they are not like the French or English, capable of judging for themselves, but their habit of implicit obedience makes them march stedfastly forward to a battery, or stand charge after charge until cut down on the spot. Accustomed from infancy to bad living and coarse fare, campaigning brings to them few additional hardships. Their great want is in officers, a want which the government endeavours to supply in the higher ranks by Germans; in the lower by Poles, Finlanders, and natives.

Navy.] Peter the Great, having determined to create a Navy for Russia, visited England, Germany, and Holland, in order to acquire a knowledge of the art of constructing vessels, and of the details of a marine. On his return, he seized on Ingria, and founded Petersburgh, with a view to make it the principal seaport of his empire. The first foreign vessel that entered the Neva was a large Dutch ship, richly laden, whose

arrival caused such satisfaction to the Tzar, that he granted this vessel an exemption from all duties while she should continue to trade to Petersburgh; and by frequent repairs she was kept in existence for more than half a century. In 1718, 100 ships of the same nation loaded at Petersburgh: and, other nations following the example of the Dutch, it was soon known that a vast field was opened in the north for commercial enterprise, and strangers of all nations flocked to Russia, to improve or seek their fortunes.

The merchants of Germany, England, France, Holland, Denmark and Sweden, established themselves in the cities for the purposes of commerce, while the English and Dutch also supplied ship-builders and officers, both of land and sea, who improved the organization of the armies and fleets.

Under the immediate successors of Peter the Great, the Russian Navy was strangely neglected; but when Catherine II. ascended the throne, she determined to effect its revival. This ambitious and enlightened princess again invited English and other foreign ship-builders and officers to Petersburgh; and among the English was Sir Charles Knowles, a captain in the British navy, who united the professional knowledge of the complete practical seaman to an intimate acquaintance with the theory of marine architecture. Under his direction the Russian navy was soon put on a respectable footing, and many of the abuses in its civil administration were corrected. Towards the end of Catherine's reign, the marine again declined, but revived under Paul, who built many ships, and introduced several improvements into the naval administration.

The Russian dominions afford every article necessary to the construction and equipment of a navy. At Cronstadt and Petersburgh, the ships are built of the oak of Casan; the Ukraine, and Government of Moscow, supply hemp; masts are procured from the vast pine forests of Novogorod, and from the Polish provinces; pitch and tar from Wyborg; iron and copper from Siberia. In spite of all these advantages the marine is far from having attained a height proportioned to that of the land forces of the empire. The want of ports

on the ocean, and of colonies and fisheries abroad, as well as the state of vassalage of the peasantry, which binds them to the soil, are the chief causes that depress the military marine, as well as the commercial, by preventing the formation of seamen. The government, has, however, latterly done something towards forming national seamen, by obliging all Russian ships to have two-thirds of their crews natives; and binding the captains, under a penalty of 240 rubles, to bring back to port every Russian seaman he carries from it. There is, however, no restriction with respect to the countries of the captains and officers of merchant vessels; and the greater number of those in the Russian foreign traders are foreigners. It has also been latterly the custom to send young men, at the expense of the crown, into the English service to learn the profession, and they have been admitted into the British navy as volunteers.

The naval force of Russia consisted in 1820, of 30 ships of the line, 20 frigates, 15 sloops, and 200 galleys. The total number of her merchant vessels that navigate the Baltic and the ocean did not very lately exceed 50; 100 lesser vessels serve to carry on the coasting trade of the Baltic, and about 100 craft, of twenty to thirty tons, are employed in loading and discharging the vessels at Cronstadt, that cannot enter the Neva. Not one of the Russian ports, except Petersburgh, has any establishments for building, or repairing ships.* Even the few ships that sail under the Russian flag from Riga and Revel belong to the merchants of Hamburgh and Lubeck, who in order to profit by the drawback of three-eighths of the duties on imports, have purchased the freedom of these cities.

* The expense of building ships, in consequence of negligence, waste, and imposition, was so enormous in the reign of Catherine, that Admiral Knowles told that Empress, he would engage to fetch all the materials for ship building from Russia, pay the duties upon them, and deliver to her from England ships completely equipped at much less expense than they cost her in her own dock-yards.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

How many soldiers, according to tabular calculations, are said to compose the Russian army?

What system of military colonization is established in Russia?

What is the probable number of effective soldiers which Russia can bring into the field?

In what respects do the Russian, differ from the English and and French soldiers, and from what nations are their officers selected?

Why did Peter the Great visit England, Germany, and Holland?

What was his principal object in founding Petersburgh?

Whence did the first vessel that entered the Neva come, and what privileges did the Tsar confer upon her?

How many Dutch ships loaded at Petersburgh in 1718?

What merchants established themselves in the cities of Russia at that period, for the purposes of commerce, and who supplied the Russians with ship-builders and officers?

What was the state of the Russian navy under the immediate successors of Peter the Great?

Who effected its revival, and what means did she employ for this purpose?

When did it again decline, and under whom was it a second time revived?

What parts of the Russian dominions furnish the various materials for ship-building?

Why is the marine of this empire so inferior to its land forces?

What measures has the government recently adopted to promote the advancement of the navy?

What exception is made in these measures, in favour of merchant vessels?

Whither are young men sent, at the expence of the crown, to be instructed in the naval profession?

What was the extent of the naval force of Russia in 1820?

How many of her merchant vessels lately navigated the Baltic, and what number of minor vessels does she employ in the coasting trade, and for other purposes?

Where is the only Russian establishment for building and repairing ships?

What anecdote is reported of Admiral Knowles, with relation to the Russian navy?

CHAPTER XIV.

DRESS, STYLE OF LIVING, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND NATIONAL CHARACTER.

Dress.] The nobility of both sexes in Russia, dress according to the English or French fashions, but in the simple covering of the peasantry, the ancient and characteristic garb of the empire may still be perceived. The head is protected from the inclemency of the weather by caps of velvet and fur, some round, others square, in the turban form, or varied according to the choice of the wearer. A long kaftan of blue or brown cloth, reaching below the knees, exactly fitted to the shape, without any cape, and crossing diagonally the breast, (being fastened with cylindrical buttons of brass or white metal, till it reaches the bottom of the waist,) is the covering for the body. Round the waist is a sash of crimson worsted net, like that worn by British officers. In this they place their gloves, or if they be labourers, their hatchets. The neck is completely bare of any other shelter than their hair, which hangs down in straight locks all around it. Their shirts and trowsers are of coarse linen, striped with either red or blue. Thick swathes of rags are rolled about their legs to keep out the cold, over which they pull a pair of large and ill-constructed boots. Those who do not arrive at the luxury of these leathern defences, increase the swathings to such a bulk by wrappings and cross bandages, that their lowest extremities appear more like flour sacks, than the legs of men. When thus encased, they force them into a pair of enormous shoes, made very ingeniously from the bark of linden trees, at a very small expense. Their mode of habiliment undergoes no other alteration during the winter, than perhaps exchanging the kaftan for a sheep skin of the same form. This style of dress appertains to the commonalty alone, and it closely resembles that worn by the English in the reign of Richard II. as may be seen

from the monumental remains of that period, which are to be found in our cathedrals and churches.

The wives of the lowest classes wear a short gown of blue woollen cloth, bound with divers colours; the waist is usually fastened by a close row of cylindrical buttons. Their heads are ordinarily bound with a flowered handkerchief, of the gayest patterns, terminating beneath the chin. On holidays, a little front of gold and coloured stones, formed like a diadem, is added. In the most excessive cold, this slight coëffure is the only covering for the head; but for the shelter of the body, the ever-valuable and customary sheep-skin is applied to, in the shape of an English peasant's bed-gown. Warm stockings and boots are the defence for the legs.

The wives of mechanics and Russian merchants dress with more taste and costliness. Their gowns are of a rich brocade, and their heads fantastically adorned with pearls. Their clokes are shaped like an ancient doublet, and are made of velvet, either crimson, scarlet, or purple, lined and caped with sable fur of the most expensive kind. They also wear boots, made of leather, or velvet, according to the pecuniary ability of the purchaser. Indeed, this invention for the comfort of the legs, is so respected here, that the smallest infants, just able to crawl, are encumbered with it, to the neglect of more important articles of dress.

All the clergy wear long beards and long hair, which flows down their shoulders, without being tied or curled. Their dress is a square bonnet, and a long robe of a black or dark colour, reaching to the ancles. The secular and regular priests use, in some instances, a different habit, and the dignitaries of the chnrch are distinguished by a more costly vestment.

Style of living] The houses of the nobility at Petersburgh are furnished with great elegance, and with some proper regard to convenience. The suite of apartments in which they receive company is uncommonly splendid, and is fitted up in the style of London or Paris. But the Russian nobility and gentry, away from the capital, though they live in a style of barbaric

magnificence, know but little of the domestic comforts of a house. One or two beds are the utmost to be found in one of their mansions; the young ladies sleep on the sofas which surround the room, without any covering but their own clothes, a pillow being the only extra furniture on the occasion. Towels, night-caps, and similar conveniences, have not yet become common even in the most respectable houses in the interior; and when a gentleman, who was a guest at one of them, asked for a washing-basin, a soup-plate, with a caraff of water was brought to him.

The nobles of Petersburgh are no less than those of Moscow distinguished for hospitality to foreigners. Persons are no sooner presented to a gentleman of rank and fortune, than they are regarded as domestic visitants. Many of the nobility keep an open table, to which the first invitation is considered as a standing passport of admission. The only form necessary on this occasion is to make inquiry in the morning, if the master of the house dines at home, and if he does, to present yourself at his table without further ceremony. The oftener you appear at these hospitable boards, the more acceptable a guest you are esteemed, and you always seem to confer, instead of to receive a favour.

The tables of the nobility are served with great profusion and taste. Though the Russians have adopted the delicacies of French cookery, yet they neither affect to despise their native dishes, nor fastidiously reject the solid joints which characterize an English repast. The plainest as well as the choicest viands, are collected from the most distant quarters. Frequently may be seen at the same table, sterlet from the Volga, veal from Archangel, mutton from Astrachan, beef from the Ukraine, and pheasants from Hungary and Bohemia. The common wines are claret, burgundy, and champagne; and English beer and porter are furnished in great perfection and abundance. The dishes are handed round one at a time; and as this cannot be done without a great number of servants, there are sometimes fourteen attendants to twelve visitors. Before dinner, even in the houses of persons of the first distinction, a small table is spread in the corner of the drawing room, covered with plates

of caviare, dried and pickled herrings, smoked hams or tongues, bread, butter, and cheese, together with bottles of different liqueurs; and few of the company of either sex omit a prelude of this kind to the main entertainment. This practice has induced many travellers to assert, that the Russians, without distinction, swallow bowls of brandy before dinner; but this assertion is founded on mistake. The quantity of liqueur which the superior classes, at least, take before their principal meal is so exceedingly small, that it can act only as a gentle refreshment or stimulant, and will not convey the faintest idea of excess. The usual hour of dining is at three; and the entertainments are mostly regulated according to the French ceremonies; the wine is circulated during meals, and the dishes are no sooner removed, than the company retire into another room and are served with coffee.

The houses of the peasantry, formed of whole trees, and usually constructed solely with the assistance of the hatchet, are in tolerable repair, and well-adapted to their habits. They sometimes, but not often, consist of two stories; the lower forms a store-room; in the upper one they dwell. A kind of ladder on the outside serves as a staircase. There is generally but one room in the habitable part. Their furniture seldom comprises more than a wooden table, and benches fastened to the sides of the room, wooden platters, bowls, and spoons, and, perhaps, a large earthen pan, in which to cook their victuals. The family sleep generally upon the benches, on the ground, or over the stove, which is a kind of brick oven, occupying almost a quarter of the room, and flat at the top. In some cottages there is a kind of shelf, about six or seven feet from the ground, carried from one end of the room to the other; to which are fastened several transverse planks, and upon them some of the family sleep, with their heads and feet occasionally hanging down, as if on the point of falling to the ground. The number of persons thus crowded into a small space, sometimes amounting to twenty, added to the heat of the stove, renders the room intolerably warm, and produces a suffocating smell, which nothing but use can enable the

peasants to support. This inconvenience is still more disagreeable in the cottages not provided with chimnies, where the smoak loads the air with additional impurities.

The diet of the peasants is substantial; black rye-bread, eggs, salt fish, and bacon: a hotch-potch of salt or fresh meat, groats, and rye-flour, seasoned with onions and garlic, constitutes their favourite dish. Of this kind of food, they obtain plenty at a cheap rate. Mushrooms also form a very essential part of their provision. The traveller can scarcely enter a cottage without seeing them in great abundance, and of many colours, among which, white, black, brown, green, and pink are the most conspicuous.

The common drink of the lower classes is quass, a fermented liquor, somewhat like sweet-wort, made by pouring warm water on rye or barley-meal, and deemed an excellent antiscorbutic. They are extremely fond of whiskey, a spirituous liquor distilled from malt, which the poorest can occasionally command, and which they often use to great excess.

The following lively description of a market on the Neva has been given by a modern traveller:—

"At the conclusion of the long fast, which closes on the 14th December, (O.S.) the Russians lay in their provisions for the remaining part of the winter. For this purpose, an annual market, which lasts three days, is held upon the river, near the fortress. A long street, above a mile in length, was lined on each side with an immense store of provisions, sufficient for the supply of this capital for the three following months. Many thousand raw carcases of oxen, sheep, hogs, pigs, together with geese, fowls, and every species of frozen food, were exposed to sale. The larger quadrupeds were grouped in various circles, upright, their hind legs fixed in the snow, with their heads and fore legs turned to each other: these towered above the rest, and occupied the hindermost row. Next to them succeeded a regular series of animals, descending gradually to the smallest, intermixed with poultry and game, hanging in festoons, and garnished with heaps of butter, fish and eggs. I soon perceived, from the profusion of partridges,

moor-fowls, and cocks of the wood, that there were no laws in this country which prohibited the selling of game. I observed also the truth of what has been frequently asserted, that many of the birds, as well as several animals, in these northern regions, become white in winter, many hundred black cocks being changed to that colour; and some which had been taken before they had completed their metamorphosis, exhibited a mixture of black and white plumage. The most distant quarters contributed to supply this vast store of provisions; and the finest veal had been sent by land carriage as far as from Archangel, which is situated at the distance of 830 miles from St. Petersburgh; yet, every species of food is surprisingly cheap. In order to render this frozen food fit for dressing, it is first thawed in cold water. Frozen meat, however, certainly loses much of its flavour, and accordingly, the tables of persons of condition, and those of the English merchants are supplied with fresh killed meat.

Manners, Customs, and National Character.] The modes of salutation practised by persons of higher rank are these. The gentlemen bow very low, and the ladies incline their heads instead of curtsying. Sometimes the gentlemen kiss the ladies' hands as a mark of respect, which is usual in many countries: if the parties are well acquainted, or of equal condition, or if the lady means to pay a compliment, she salutes his cheek, while he is kissing her hand. If the gentleman is a person of high rank, the lady offers first to kiss his hand, which he prevents by saluting her cheek. The men, and particularly relations, exchange salutes in this manner, each kissing the other's hand at the same instant, and afterwards their cheeks.

The Russians, in the usual mode of address, never prefix any title or appellation of respect to their names; but persons of all ranks, even those of the first distinction, call each other by their christian names, to which they add a patronymic. These patronymics are formed, in some cases, by adding Vitch to the christian name of the father, in others, by adding Of or Ef; the former

applied only to persons of condition, the latter to those of inferior rank. Thus, Ivan Ivanovitch, or Ivan Ivanof, is Ivan, the son of Ivan.

The female patronymic is Efna or Ofna, as Sophia Alexefna, or Sophia, the daughter of Alexey; Maria Ivanofna, or Maria, the daughter of Ivan.

Great families are also in general distinguished by a surname, as those of Romanof, Galitzin, and Sheremetof.

The peasants in their common intercourse, are remarkably polite to each other: they take off their caps at meeting, bow ceremoniously and frequently, and usually exchange a salute. They accompany their ordinary discourse with much action, and innumerable gestures; and are exceedingly servile in their expressions of deference to their superiors: in accosting a person of consequence, they prostrate themselves, and even touch the ground with their heads.

A peculiar custom of Russia is the frequent use of the warm bath, in which the water is heated from 100 to 130 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer. A bathing room is thus described by a gentleman at Petersburgh, who was ordered to bathe for his health. "The room was small and low, and contained a heap of large stones, piled over a fire, and two broad benches, one near the ground, and another near the ceiling. Small buckets of water being occasionally thrown upon the heated stones, filled the room with a hot and suffocating vapour; which, from its tendency to ascend, rendered the upper part much hotter than the lower. Having taken off my clothes, I laid myself down upon the highest bench; while tubs of hot and cold were being prepared, and the vapour was increased, in the manner above-mentioned. The person in attendance, having dipped a bunch of twigs into the hot water, repeatedly sprinkled, and then rubbed with it my whole body. In about half an hour I removed to the lower bench, which I found much cooler; when the same person lathered me from head to foot with soap, scrubbed me with flannel for the space of ten minutes; and, throwing several buckets of warm water over me, till the soap was entirely washed off, finally dried me with napkins. As I put on my clothes in a room without fire, I had an

opportunity of remarking, that the cold air had little effect on my body, though in so heated a state; for while I was dressing, I felt a glow of warmth which continued during the whole night. This circumstance convinced me, that when the natives rush from the vapour-baths into the river, or even roll in the snow, their sensations are in no respect disagreeable, nor the effects in any degree unwholesome.

Though the hardiness of the Russians has, with reason, been generally attributed to the sudden extremes of heat and cold, which they experience on these occasions; yet there are other causes which promote this effect. The peasants change their dress without the least attention to the variation of the seasons; on the same day they wear only their coarse shirts and drawers, or are clad in the warmest clothing. They are totally unacquainted with the luxury of beds; and their cottages are so heated with stoves, that when they go out, it is like issuing from a warm bath into the open air. The children are in like manner inured from their earliest infancy to the most opposite extremes: they may be seen standing or lying near the doors of the cottages, with no other covering than their shirts, even in rainy or frosty weather. Thus the natives are used to sudden changes of heat and cold, and accustomed from their infancy to the hardest kind of life.

The fondness for bathing, which is universally shewn by the Russians, may be thought indicative of a high regard for cleanliness; but there is reason to believe, that as a people, they are very deficient in the cultivation of this virtue. The lower classes continue the use of one sheep-skin throughout the winter; they walk in it, sit in it, and sleep in it; and the dirty appendage is relinquished for the few minutes only which they spend in the bath. In all their cottages, the tables are always scoured white; but they give themselves no concern about vermin, or rather spare them from hereditary respect. Even persons of superior rank, when visited in their country retirement,* are found to pay little respect

* "Visit a Russian, of whatever rank, at his country seat," says Dr. Clarke, "and you will find him lounging about, uncombed, unwashed, unshaven, and half-naked, eating raw turnips, and drinking quass."

to cleanliness, either of person or dress; nor, as we have before stated, do their domestic arrangements provide for attention to the minuter delicacies of civilized life.

Among the different religious customs of Russia, the blessing of the waters, and the ceremonies observed at Easter, and at the commencement of spring, are entitled to particular attention.

The blessing of the waters used to be performed upon the Neva, with great pomp and solemnity, but the former is now much diminished. Upon the frozen surface of a small canal, between the Admiralty and the palace, is erected an octagonal pavilion, of wood, painted green, and ornamented with boughs of fir: it is open at the sides, and crowned with a dome, supported by eight pillars. On the top, is the figure of St. John with the cross, and four paintings, representing some of the miracles of our Saviour; on the inside, a carved image of the Holy Spirit, under the emblem of a dove, is suspended, as is usual in the sanctuaries of the Greek churches. The floor of this edifice is carpeted, excepting a square vacancy in the middle, in which an opening is cut in the ice, and a ladder let down into the water. The pavilion is enclosed by palisadoes, adorned with boughs of fir, and the intermediate space is also covered with carpets. From one of the windows of the palace a scaffold is erected, ornamented with red cloth, which reaches to the extremity of the canal. At the time appointed, the Emperor, or Empress, appears at the window of the palace; and the archbishop, who is to perform the benediction, passes, at the head of a numerous procession, along the scaffolding into the octagon, round which are drawn up a few soldiers of each regiment quartered at St. Petersburgh. After having pronounced a few prayers, he descends the ladder, plunges the cross into the water, and then sprinkles the colours of each regiment. At the conclusion of this ceremony, the archbishop retires; and the people rush in crowds into the octagon, drink with eagerness the water, sprinkle it upon their clothes, and carry away some of it, for the purpose of purifying their houses. Some of them are said to plunge themselves into the water, and others to dip their children into it.

The Russian ceremony, performed at Easter, is a striking and imposing spectacle. A gentleman, who witnessed it a few years since, gives the following account of it: "We entered the Casan church at a late hour. The nave, the aisles, in short, every part was crowded to suffocation with a host of devotees: thousands of lighted tapers, for each bore one in his hand, glittered over the whole area, spreading an illumination as bright as noon. As the hour of twelve approached, all eyes were earnestly bent on the sanctuary, and a dead silence reigned throughout. At length, the door was opened, when there issued forth a long train of banners, crosses, &c. with archimandrites, protopopes, and priests of all ranks, dressed in their sumptuous robes of embroidered silk, and covered with gold, and silver, and jewels: they moved slowly through the crowd, and went out from the doors of the church, as if to search for the body of our Lord. In a few minutes, the insignia were again seen on their return, floating above the heads of the mob, along the nave; and when the archbishop had regained the altar, he pronounced with a loud voice, *Christos volseress*, Christ is risen. At that instant, the hymn of praise commenced, and a peal of ordnance from the fortress re-echoed the joyful tidings through the city. The mob now saluted and congratulated one another in turn, for the days of fasting were at an end: tables spread with provisions in a short time made their appearance in the church; the forbidden meats were tasted with eager appetite; and a feast of gluttony, that annually proves fatal to some of the followers of this religion, took place of penance and prayer."

The ceremony performed at the commencement of the spring, is thus described by the same gentleman: "In the fervency of that ostentatious gratitude that characterises the Russian church, the verdure, when it first appears in spring, annually receives a solemn benediction. The places of worship, as well as private houses, are filled with the consecrated boughs borne by the devotees; and, on the first Sunday after Ascension-day, the same priests who poured their blessing on the frozen water in the winter, hail with similar ceremonies the summer vegetation." A procession takes place on

this day, as well as on the first of May, which is kept as a *fête* throughout the north, to Ekatherinoff. Hither, the court, all the gay world, and all who can hire a carriage of any description, repair to hail the first burst of the genial season: sometimes, above 2,000 carriages make their appearance in the procession.

The moral qualities of the Russians are such as may be expected, from the despotism of their government, the general deficiency of their education, and the superstition of their religion. The nobles, like the feudal barons of former ages, are, for the most part, ignorant, proud and sensual; while their vassals, from the state of oppression in which they are held, are commonly addicted to deceit and falsehood. The manner of both is marked by the thoughtless gaiety so general in despotic countries; and with all ranks the pleasures of the table are an object of great attention. Drunkenness is indeed said to be almost banished from the habits of the Russia gentry, but it is still practised to a great extent by the lower classes.

A want of probity prevails among the great mass of Russian population. With some noble, but rare exceptions, from the minister next to the Emperor's person, down to the meanest servant of the crown, all are open to bribery. In many of the public offices, the prices of justice are of long standing, and currently known; in others, a bargain must be struck, in much the same way as in the shops; and in proportion to the importance of the decision to be given, the rank of the functionary, and the supposed possibility of the sums being raised, is the amount of the expected perquisite. Those who have carried on trade in Russia, know by experience, that the native merchants and shop-keepers are, in general, totally unworthy of confidence; that the most paltry sum will make them break their agreement, and that no effort is left unemployed to evade the payment of a just debt.

As a relief to these dark, though just, views of the Russian character, it is pleasing to remark, that in hospitality to foreigners, they are surpassed by no other people, and that they are highly distinguished by a spirit of religious toleration. Their Secretary of State,

foreign affairs, is a member of the English Protestant rch at St. Petersburgh. Admiral Greig, an officer high reputation in their navy, is a member of the same rch; and many of their most distinguished officers, th civil and military, belong to different Christian rofessions and sects.

Few nations excel, or even equal the Russians in the pirit of trade and mercantile industry. If a common Russian, by extreme parsimony, can save the most trifling sum of money, he endeavours to become a merchant. This career he usually begins as a pedlar about the streets, and when, by this ambulatory trade, he has enlarged his little capital, he hires a shop, where, by lending money at usurious interest, by taking advantage of the course of exchange, and by employing little artifices of trade, he, in a short time, acquires property to a considerable amount. He now buys and builds shops, which he either lets to others, or furnishes with goods himself, placing persons in them for small wages; begins to embark in extensive trade, undertakes contracts with the crown, deliveries of merchandise, &c. The numerous instances of the rapid success of such people almost exceed description. By these methods, a Russian merchant, named Sava Yacovlof, who died not many years ago, from a hawker of fish about the streets, became a capitalist of several millions of rubles. Many of these favorites of fortune are at first vassals, who obtain passes from their lords, and with these stroll about the town, in order to seek a better condition of life, as labourers, bricklayers, and carpenters, than they could hope to find at the plough in the country. Some of them continue slaves after fortune has raised them to great riches, paying their lords in proportion to their circumstances, an olerok, or yearly tribute. Among the people of this class, at St. Petersburgh, there are many, who belong to Count Sheremetof, said to be the richest man in Russia, and pay him annually for their pass above 1000 rubles. It often happens, that these merchants, when even in splendid circumstances, still retain their natural habit, and their long beard; and it is by no means rare to see them driving along the

agreeable, though a more difficult, mode, than that which is employed in other countries.

The swing is the amusement of all ranks and conditions, and Easter witnesses it in its greatest perfection, swings being then set up in all the public squares. These swings may be divided into three sorts; some have a vibrating motion, and these are the most common; others are turned round in a perpendicular, and others again, in a horizontal, direction. The first of these latter species consists of two high posts, on the top of which rests an axle, having two pairs of poles fixed on its centre. Each of these pairs of poles has, at its two extremities, a seat suspended from a moveable axis. The proprietor, by turning the axis that rests on the two posts, makes all the eight seats go round in a perpendicular circle, so that they, alternately, almost touch the ground, and then are mounted aloft in the air. The last kind is composed of chairs, chariots, sledges, wooden horses, swans, goats, &c. fastened at the extremities of long poles, and forced rapidly round in a horizontal circle.*

Another kind of holiday diversion is the ice-hills. A scaffold about thirty feet high, is erected on the Neva; on one side of it are steps, or a ladder, to ascend to the platform on the top; on the opposite side, a steep inclined plane, about four yards broad and thirty long, descends to the river; this is supported by strong poles, and its sides are protected by a parapet of planks. Large square blocks of ice, about four inches thick, are laid upon the inclined plane, close to one another, and smoothed with the axe; they are then consolidated by water thrown over them. The snow is cleared away at the bottom of the plane for the length of two hundred yards, and the breadth of four; and the sides of this course, as well as those of the scaffoldings, are ornamented and protected with firs and pines. Each person, provided with a little low sledge, something like a butcher's tray, mounts the ladder, and glides with inconceivable rapidity down the inclined plane, poising his sledge as he goes down. The momentum thus acquired, carries him to a second hill, at the foot

of which he alights, mounts again, and in the same manner glides down the other inclined plane of ice.

Boys, also, continually amuse themselves in skating down these hills; they glide, chiefly, upon one skate, being better able to preserve their balance on one leg than on two. These ice-hills exhibit a pleasing appearance, as well from the trees with which they are ornamented, as from the moving objects descending without intermission, which Richter, in his sketch of Moscow, not unaptly, compares to a cataract of human figures.

Summer-hills, constructed in imitation of the ice-hills, also afford a favorite amusement to the inhabitants of St. Petersburgh, especially during their carnival. These consist of a scaffold between 30 and 40 feet high, with an inclined plane in front, flowers and boughs of trees sheltering the person in his descent: a small, narrow cart on four wheels is used instead of the sledge; below, there is a level stage of some hundred feet in length, along which he is carried by the impulse of his descent.

Travelling.] The carriage road between St. Petersburgh and Moscow, as in most other parts of Russia, is constructed in the following manner: Trunks of trees are laid transversely in rows parallel to each other, and are bound down in the centre, and at each extremity, by long poles or beams, fastened into the ground with wooden pegs; these trunks are covered with layers of boughs, and the whole is strewed over with sand and earth. When the road is new, it is remarkably good; but, as the trunks decay or sink into the ground, and as the sand or earth is worn away, or washed off by the rain, as is frequently the case for several miles together, it is broken into innumerable holes; and the jolting of the carriage over the bare timber can better be conceived than described.*

The distance between the two capitals is 487 miles. Peter the Great began to construct a road which was to

* The inhabitants of Russia, to alleviate this inconvenience, universally fill their travelling carriages with soft pillows, taken from their beds, which give a particularly luxurious but grotesque appearance to their equipages.

be continued the whole way, in a straight line,—an elevated causeway, carried over marsh and bog, and through thick forests of birch and fir,—in other words, a bridge of timber. When Mr. Hanway travelled, in 1743, only one hundred miles had been completed in pursuance of the original plan; and, according to a calculation made by him, no fewer than 2,100,000 trees were required. On each side of this, as of all the other great provincial roads, the law directs, that an esplanade should be made, 100 yards broad, for the accommodation of cattle coming to market: by means of this convenience, the journey from the Ukraine to St. Petersburgh, which occupies two months, becomes practicable at little expence to the graziers, and with little fatigue or injury to their cattle.

The posthouses, which occur on the high roads of Russia, are large, square, wooden buildings, enclosed in a spacious court-yard. In the centre of the front, is a range of apartments intended for the reception of travellers, with a gateway on each side leading into the court-yard; the remainder of the front is appropriated to the use of the post-master and his servants, the other three sides of the quadrangle being divided into stables, and sheds for carriages, and large barns for hay and corn.

The following sketch of a winter journey in Russia is given by a lively and well-known traveller:—"Nothing interesting presenting itself, we travelled onwards, through towns and villages, and over a dreary country, rendered ten thousand times more so by the season. All around was a vast wintry flat: and frequently not a vestige of man or of cultivation was seen, not even a tree, to break the boundless expanse of snow. Indeed, no idea can be formed of the immense plains we traversed, unless you imagine yourself at sea, far, far from the sight of land. The Arabian deserts cannot be more awful to the eye, than the appearance of this scene. Such is the general aspect of the country during the rigors of winter; with now and then an exception of a large forest skirting the horizon for a considerable length of way. At intervals, as you shoot along, you see openings amongst its lofty trees, from

* The principal roads of Russia are undergoing great improvement.

which emerge picturesque groupes of natives and their one-horse sledges, whereon are placed the different articles of commerce, going to various parts of this empire. They travel in vast numbers, and from all quarters, seldom fewer than one hundred and fifty in a string, having a driver to every seventh horse. The effect of this cavalcade at a distance is very curious; and in a morning, as they advance towards you, the scene is as beautiful as striking. The sun then rising, throws his rays across the snow, transforming it to the sight into a surface of diamonds. From the cold of the night, every man and horse is encrusted with these frosty particles; and the beams falling on them too, seem to cover their rude faces and rugged habits with a tissue of the most dazzling brilliants. The manes of the horses, and the long beards of the men, from the quantity of congealed breath, have a particularly glittering effect."

With respect to accomodations on the road, it is said, that nothing should be expected from inns or houses of entertainment, not even clean straw for a bed. An English traveller who had visited the most remote and desolate parts of the Scotch Highlands, even half a century ago, would be ill prepared to encounter the inconveniences, discomfort, and privations to which he would be exposed in journeying from one capital of Russia to the other, if he did not carry along with him the means of preventing or remedying them. Among these the most indispensable are, a pewter tea-pot; a kettle; a saucepan, the top of which may be used as a dish; tea, sugar, and a large cheese; loaves of bread made into rusks; if in the winter, frozen meat; wine in the cold districts; vinegar in the hot. Thus prepared, he may safely encounter this long journey.

The principal modes of conveyance in Russia, are by means of sledges, drojekas, and kibitkas.

A sledge is a machine on which not only the persons of the people are transported from place to place with unparalleled speed, but likewise the product of other nations is passed many thousand versts into the interior. The sledge is precisely a pair of colossal skates joined together. On these (according to the

taste of the owner) is erected the most agreeable and convenient carriage which either his purse may afford or his situation claim. The sledges of the humbler order are solely formed of logs of wood bound together with ropes into the before-mentioned shape: on this is an even surface of plank or matting, for the accommodation of themselves or loads. The sledges which succeed the drojeka (the St. Petersburgh hackney-coach), are generally very neat, yet always gaudy, being decorated with red, green, gold and silver, with strange carved work and uncouth whirligigs of iron. Their interior is well bespread with *damp* hay, for the benefit of the hirer, in order to keep his feet *warm*.

The drojeka, which is employed in the large towns, like our hackney-coaches, is a sort of parallelogram, with four leathern wings, projecting at no great distance from its body, and passing in a semi-circular line towards the ground; it runs on four low wheels, and is generally furnished with two seats, placed in such a manner that two persons can sit sideways, but with their backs to each other. In some of these carriages the seat is so formed, that the occupier sits as on a saddle, and for the better security holds by the driver's sash.

The kibitka resembles the old Scythian waggon. It holds two persons abreast; the driver sits at the further end, near the horse's tail; the hinder part is covered with a tilt, open in front, made of laths, and covered with birch, or other bark. The whole machine does not contain a single piece of iron, and there are no springs: the body of the carriage is fastened to the wheels by wooden pins, ropes, and sticks. In order to prevent the inconvenience that would arise from the jolting in such roads as those of Russia, a feather-bed is usually placed at the bottom. With this precaution, a *kibitka* is a snug and comfortable vehicle. In some parts of Tartary, the top is taken off at night, and serves as a tent; hence the Russians call the tents of the Calmucks *kibitka*.

The mode of attaching the horses to this vehicle is different from that used on similar occasions in any other country; they being harnessed (generally six in number) abreast, like the chariots of old. The traces

are of ropes; and the driver sits on a box, in front of the kibitka. The steeds are every thing in appearance that is wretched and mean, being diminutive in size, with matted coats, and clotted tails and manes.

The peasants act in the capacities of coachmen and postillions. They seldom use either boots or saddles, and have no sort of stirrup, except a rope doubled and thrown across the horse's back. Their method of driving is not in a steady pace, but by starts and bounds, with little attention to the nature of the ground; they seldom trot their horses, but will suddenly force them into a gallop, and sometimes as suddenly check their speed upon the most level surface. A common piece of rope serves them for a whip, which they seldom have any occasion to use, as they urge their horses forwards by hooting and whistling like catcalls.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

What are the amusements of the different classes of Society in Russia?

What account is given of the fondness of the Russians for singing?

Which are their principal musical instruments?

To what game of chance are they particularly addicted?

How are the swings described which the Russians employ in their holiday diversions?

What kind of amusement are the ice-hills, and why do they exhibit a pleasing appearance?

How are the roads in Russia generally constructed, and by what means do the inhabitants guard against their jolting effects?

What is the distance between St. Petersburgh and Moscow, who ordered a road to be raised between those capitals, and how many trees are said to have been required for its construction?

How is accommodation provided for the drivers of cattle on the great provincial roads of Russia?

What account is given of the Post-houses and Inns in the interior of this vast Empire?

How is a winter journey in Russia described?

What vehicles are commonly used in this country, and how are they formed?

Who act in the capacity of coachmen and postillions, and what is their particular method of driving?

CHAPTER XVI.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.] The standard according to which the value of the Russian coins is usually estimated, is the ruble; but the value of this coin varies considerably at different periods. In 1805, it was worth 3s. 2d. 83. Keeping this standard in view, the following table will show the value of Russian coins.

Gold	Imperial	10 rubles
	Half-imperial	5
Silver	Ruble	100 copecks
	Half-ruble	50
	Quarter-ruble	25
	Twenty-copeck piece	20
	Fifteen-copeck piece	15
	Grievnik	10
	Five-copeck piece	5
Copper	Petaki	5
	Grosch	2
	Copeck	1
	Denushka	½
	Polushka	¼

Weights.] The least Russian weight is called solotnik, and weighs about 68 troy grains, or a little more than one troy dram. Three solotniks make a lote, and 32 lotes, or 96 solotniks, a Russian pound. Thus the Russian is to the troy pound, as 6528 to 5760. It is usual in Russia to estimate the parts of a pound by solotniks, and not by lotes; thus, any thing that weighs 7 lotes, is said to weigh 27 solotniks.

A Russian pood, as has been stated in a note, is equal to 36 English pounds avoirdupois.

Measures.] The English foot was adopted by Peter the Great, and is now the standard for the whole empire. It is also divided into 12 inches, but every inch is

divided into 10 lines, and each line into 10 scruples. Twenty-eight English inches make an arshine, and three arshines one sajene, or Russian fathom, equal to seven feet English.

A Russian verst is equal to 3,500 English feet; and a geographical mile contains 6 versts, 475 sajenes, and 725 arshines.

Superficial measure is sometimes estimated by square versts and sajenes, but more commonly by desættines; each of which is equal to 2,400 square sajenes, or 117,600 English square feet.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

What is the standard by which the value of Russian coins is determined, how much is a ruble worth in English money?

How many rubles are there in an imperial?

How many copecks are there in a ruble?

What is the value of a copeck in English money?

How many pounds avoirdupois, are there in a Russian pood?

What is the proportion of the Russian pound to the pound troy?

How many solotniks are there in a lote, and how many in a pound?

What are the divisions of the Russian inch?

How many English inches make an arshine, and how many arshines a sajene or fathom?

What is the length of a Russian verst?

How many versts, &c. are there in a geographical mile?

How many English square feet are there in a desœttine?

ANCIENT AND MODERN

HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

HISTORY and tradition concur in proving that Europe has been peopled by three grand emigrations from the East, which have followed each other at distinct intervals. The earliest of these comprised the Kimmerian and Keltic race. The second consisted of the Scythian, Gothic, and German tribes, who may be regarded as the ancestors of most of the modern nations of Europe. The third, and most recent, comprehended the Slavonian or Sarmatian nations, who have established themselves in Poland, Bohemia, Russia, and their vicinities.

The Sarmatians had reached the neighbourhood of the Tanais, or Don, in the time of Herodotus,* who calls them Sauromatæ; but they were not known in Europe by the appellation Slavi, until the fourth century of the Christian era. The origin of this appellation is involved in obscurity: some authors deriving it from the word Slava, which signifies, glory, and others from Slovo, which signifies, word or speech.†

The state of the ancient Slavi resembled that of other rude and barbarous nations. Their houses which stood apart, and were much dispersed,‡ were formed of timber; as they knew nothing either of the mason's or brick-

* He flourished 450 years before Christ.

† In favour of the latter of these derivations, it may be remarked that the Slavi are named Slovene in their most ancient writers; and that at this day, the Germans are called in the Russian language, Niemtzi, i. e. dumb, or a people whose language is not understood.

‡ Hence the Greeks gave the Slavi a name which signifies scattered.

¶ Their ancient annalists, instead of saying to build a town, say to cut a town.

layer's art. Each of these wretched huts consisted of a single room, which at once supplied the place of kitchen and chamber, and having no passage for the smoke but by the door, was always black with dirt and soot. Their food was of the coarsest description; their drink, mead prepared from honey, or quass, a poor beverage brewed from meal and malt, or from bran, meal and bread, by fermentation.

Agriculture, rearing of cattle, the chace, and the management of bees, were the principal occupations of the Slaves in time of peace. The little trade they carried on, was by barter; and they were almost totally ignorant of arts, sciences, and literature.

The same character that is observable in modern Russians, is attributed to the ancient Slaves. They were distinguished by hospitality, valour, cruelty to enemies, fondness for spirituous liquors, contentment with the necessaries of life, and good humour.

War was one of the principal employments of the Slavi. They celebrated martial courage as the noblest of all virtues, and assigned to the boyar, or warrior, the highest rank in the state.

Their original form of government was democracy. The people in assembly consulted on their general concerns, and the sentiments and advice of the bravest persons were generally listened to, and followed.

Traditions, usages, decrees of their judges, had the force of written laws, which did not, and could not exist, as alphabetic language and the art of writing were unknown. In consequence of their simple manner of life, disputes and contests prevailed less among them, than among more civilized nations. Murder, as a natural result of their barbarous manners, was one of their most usual crimes; but its punishment was committed to the relations of the deceased.

The religion of the Slaves, like that of other pagan tribes, was a system of degrading and cruel superstition. Subjoined is a brief account of the principal objects of their idolatrous worship.

PERUNE.

Pérune was the chief of the Slavonian deities, the

Zeus of the Greeks, the Jupiter of the Romans, whose power was displayed in the phenomena of the sky. He warned mortals by the coruscations of his lightning, and hurled his thunder-bolts against the heads of the guilty. It was he who assembled, or scattered the clouds, who withheld, or shed upon the earth the waters of heaven. His name, in the ancient language of the Slaves, signified thunder.

This idol had the head of silver, the ears and mustachios of massy gold, the legs of iron, and the trunk of incorruptible wood. It was adorned with rubies and carbuncles, and held in its hand a stone carved as the symbol of lightning. The sacred fire burnt before it; and if the priests suffered it to become extinct, they were doomed to perish in the flames as enemies of the god. Vast forests were consecrated to Perune; and the person who dared to fell a tree in one of them, incurred the penalty of death. His altars sometimes smoked with the blood of captives, and even the children of the natives, were often immolated to his honour.

KUPALO.

Kupalo, who after Perune received the chief homage, was a mild and benevolent deity, and was worshipped amidst games and festive entertainments. He was the god of the productions of the earth, and his festival was solemnized on the 24th of June. The youth of both sexes, adorned with wreaths and garlands of flowers, met in dance, and leapt nimbly over the fires they had kindled for the occasion. Joy was seated on every countenance, and the rustic laugh was interrupted only by the noise of songs, in which the name of Kupalo* was often repeated.

VELESS, or VOLOSS.

This was one of the greatest of Slavonian gods, and was the guardian of flocks and herds. Both the Slaves and the Russians, during the time of their idolatry, swore by their arms, by Perune, and by Veless, who is also sometimes called Vlacié.

* It is worthy of remark, that the Bramins of India maintain that their god Brama took upon him the human nature, and appeared under the name of Kopulo, which is probably synonymous with Kupalo.

the strongest hydromel was served round without measure. Sometimes at these funeral festivals, celebrated on the death of a prince or chieftain, sacrifices were made of the prisoners taken in war.

It was the custom with some particular tribes to burn their dead. On such occasions the ceremonial began by the trizna, or funeral repast: they then proceeded to burn the carcase, carefully collecting the ashes and the bones that were not entirely consumed, inclosing them in vases, which they exposed on columns near the town.

RURIK.

BEGAN TO REIGN 864, DIED 879.

In the fifth century, the Slavonian hordes who had roved about the vast regions of European Russia, founded two settlements, Novgorod* on the Ilmen, and Kief, or Kiow, on the Dnieper. These states became famous for their trade,† riches, and comparative civilization; but of their transactions for several ages, no historical record has been preserved.

In the ninth century, the Novgorodians were divided into a number of political factions, which weakened their resources, and exposed them to the incursions of surrounding states. In this distracted and enfeebled condition, they followed the counsel of Gostomisle, the first recorded magistrate of Novgorod, and invited the Varagians to come and establish a regular government among them. The invitation was accepted by Rurik, a Varago-Russian prince, who, with his two brothers, Sinaus and Truvor, and a numerous train of followers, repaired to the shores of the Ladoga, and took up his abode in a town of the same name.‡ A short time after, he transferred his residence to Novgorod, where, in the year 864, he founded the Russian monarchy, the sceptre of which continued to be swayed by his descendants, upwards of 700 years.

Soon after the accession of Rurik, two of his followers, named Ascold and Dir, left Novgorod with many of their companions, to seek their fortunes at Constantinople. In the course of their route, they descried a town built upon the shores of the Dnieper; and, upon inquiring into the character of its inhabitants, they were informed that it belonged to an unwarlike people that were tributary to the Khozars. Immediately their ambition was excited; they gained forcible possession of the town, and erected it into the capital of a

* Novgorod, *i. e.* new city. It was so called in allusion to Slavensk, in the vicinity of whose ruins it was erected.

† The merchants of Novgorod are said to have traded to the shores of the Baltic Sea, and even to the distant capital of the eastern empire.

‡ Sinaus is said to have fixed his residence at Bielozoro, and Truvor at Isborsk.

Russian kingdom in the south. The name of this second capital was Kief.

This band of adventurers had, probably, intended to enter the service of the eastern emperor; but, being emboldened by success, they now declared themselves the enemies and invaders of Greece.

Having built and armed 200 ships, they descended the Dnieper, ravaged the shores of the Black Sea, and laid siege to Constantinople, the capital of the East. The Greeks, for the first time, beheld these new and formidable enemies of their empire; for the first time, they pronounced, in their own language, the distinctive appellation* of a people whom they had long been taught to confound with the Scythian hordes.

At the time of this ruthless invasion, the Grecian emperor was absent on an expedition against the Arabs; but being informed of the danger which threatened his capital, he immediately hastened to its relief. Finding, however, upon his arrival, that he was unable to repel the enemy by force, he condescended to purchase a peace; and the Russians returned in triumph to Kief.

When the Varagian princes were invested with supreme authority by the people, they always swore by Odin, that they would achieve the conquest of other lands. It cannot be supposed, therefore, that Rurik would suffer his neighbours to dwell in peace; but the fame of his exploits is wrapt in the oblivion of past ages.

Rurik remained in possession of his sovereignty till his death, in 879; upon which, Oleg, one of his relations, assumed the government; Igor, the only son of Rurik, being still in his minority.

OLEG.

BEGAN TO REIGN 970, DIED 913.

OLEG, soon after his accession to the regency, undertook an expedition against Kief. He collected a numerous army, composed of Slaves, Tschudes, and Varages; carried with him the young Igor, and on his

* Rios

route, took Smolensk, the capital of the Krivitches, and Lubitch. Having advanced near to the walls of Kief, he deemed it more prudent to attempt the capture of the city by stratagem, than force. Leaving behind him the greater part of his troops, he concealed the remainder in their barks, and passed for an ordinary merchant, whom Oleg had sent on matters of business to Constantinople. He then sent messengers to the two princes of Kief, Ascold and Dir, to invite them to a conference as compatriots and friends. The princes accepted his invitation, and confiding in his assurances of friendship, dispensed with even their ordinary attendants. But no sooner had they arrived, than they were surrounded by the soldiers of Oleg, who leaped from their barks. He, wishing to make the interest of his ward an excuse for the perfidy of his conduct, took Igor in his arms; and darting at the sovereigns of Kief a threatening look, "You are neither princes," said he, "nor of the race of princes; behold the son of Rurik!" These words were scarcely pronounced, when the soldiers rushed upon the two brothers, and murdered them at the feet of Oleg.

The nobles of Kief, surprised by the treachery, and dreading the power of Oleg, opened to him the gates of the city, which he entered in triumph. Struck with the convenience of its site, both for trade and conquest, he exclaimed, "Let Kief be the mother of all the towns of Russia." He then made it the seat of his dominion, and thus united the two Slavonian states under one head.

Leaving Igor at Kief, the regent embarked for Constantinople, with 80,000 warriors, on board 20,000 vessels. The Russians at that time could enter the Euxine only by the Borysthenes. They descended that river with ease, until they came to the seven rocks, which embarrass its course for fifteen leagues; but there they encountered perils and fatigues, which none but barbarians would have ventured to brave. They were compelled to unload their barks, and slide them over the rocks, by pushing them with their arms, and with the help of poles. At the fourth rock, they carried the baggage, the distance of 6,000 paces, bending beneath

their burden, and in danger every moment of being attacked by their foes. Having arrived at the mouth of the Borysthenes, they reached an isle where they refitted their frail and shattered barks, and waited for a favourable wind. They were compelled to repair them again, when they had gained the mouth of the Dniester; but at length, after innumerable hardships, they appeared before the imperial city of the east.

The Greeks, on hearing of their approach, had drawn a massy chain across the harbour to prevent their entrance with their ships; but undismayed by this obstacle, they drew ashore their barks, conveyed them across the land by the help of wheels, and arrived in safety under the walls of the town. Having forced their way into it, they committed horrors, which it is revolting even to record. The whole country round was laid waste; the houses were forced, plundered, demolished, or delivered a prey to the flames; the inhabitants were loaded with irons, the women violated, and the children murdered at the breasts of their mothers. The earth was drenched with blood, while the sea engulphed at once the bodies of the living, and the carcasses of the dead.

Leo, who was called the Philosopher, because he addicted himself to frivolous studies, instead of fulfilling the duties of a sovereign, was at that time emperor of the East. It is reported, that he at first attempted to poison Oleg; but that failing of success in this nefarious project, he was obliged to purchase a peace at a stipulated and enormous price.

Oleg, on his return, made his entrance into Kief, laden with the wealth acquired by his victory; and the people, dazzled with the splendour of his successes, regarded him with a reverence approaching to adoration.

The Russian monarch, thinking that the treaty of peace, which he had concluded with the Greeks, might have been made on terms more advantageous to himself, sent deputies to the emperor, with a treaty for him to sign, containing some articles which he said had been omitted through haste.

The names of the ministers who negociated the two treaties of peace between Greece and Russia, are pre-

served; and as neither of them is Slavonian, it may be inferred that all places of trust were confided to the Varagians. Hence it was that discontents arose under the reign of Rurik, and were renewed during the regency of Oleg.

Oleg governed 33 years the dominions of which he was only the trustee, there being no laws that could force him to transfer the supreme authority to his ward. The Russians, moreover, as will be seen in the sequel of their history, were averse to being governed by young princes; a dislike which, for several ages, established among them a right of succession different from that which obtained in other countries.

IGOR. I.

BEGAN TO REIGN 913, DIED 943.

IGOR was about forty years of age, when he ascended the throne. At the commencement of his reign, several nations who had submitted to Oleg, endeavoured to recover their liberty; but he subdued them, and punished their revolt with the exaction of a larger tribute.

About this time (915) the Petchenegans, who had been hitherto unknown, quitted the banks of the Yaik and the Volga, and made an attack upon Russia. Igor, being surprised, was unable to take the field, and therefore concluded a peace with them. They soon after, however, renewed the war, when he defeated them, and prevented their giving him any further molestation.

In 941, Igor, in violation of the treaty entered into by Oleg, made war upon the Greeks. Having raised an immense army, he set out for Constantinople, and on his way thither, perpetrated the most horrid deeds. The troops of the empire, being at a distance, presented no obstacle to his career; but the want of resistance

seemed only to aggravate his barbaric cruelty and rage. His soldiers spared none of the wretches who fell into their hands, some they crucified, others they impaled, cut in pieces, or buried alive; others they suspended to gibbets, and in brutal amusement made them the butt of their arrows. Flames and long tracks of blood every where marked their progress, and the whole scene evinced the fury of a conqueror who delighted in slaughter and destruction.

The report of these horrors was speedily conveyed to the capital of the empire. The Greeks, roused from their slumber, determined neither to purchase, nor sue for peace, but to fight for it. They collected numerous armies in every direction: and the Russians being surrounded, atoned with their blood for the blood of their victims. Having lost great numbers of their men, they with difficulty opened a passage to their ships, where new disasters awaited them. The Greek admiral Theophanes attacked them by surprise, in sight of the Pharos, and increased their dismay by throwing among them the Greek fire. Their vessels dispersed, shattered, consumed by the flames, went to the bottom, and the crews, either sunk with them, or were taken prisoners. The remainder of their army took to flight, and scattered themselves along the coasts of Bithynia. Here they were met by the Grecian general Phocas, who attacked them with a small, but well chosen body of troops, and defeated them with great slaughter. They again fled, but being unable to preserve order in their retreat, many of them fell by the sword, or were made prisoners by the reinforcements that arrived.

The Russians regained their ships, and fearing to renew the combat, weighed anchor under favour of the night. But Theophanes pursued them, and burnt and sunk several of their remaining barks. In short, they were so diminished by their successive defeats, that by the confession even of the Russian chronicles, Igor scarcely took back with him a third part of his army. *Such was the just reward of lawless ambition, and violated faith.*

Though thus weakened and discomfited, Igor col-

lected new forces, and in 944 undertook a second expedition against Greece; but he scarcely advanced further than the Chersonesus Taurica. Romanus, who had usurped the throne of the Cæsars, being informed of his approach, sent messengers with offers to pay him the same tribute that Oleg had exacted from his predecessors. Igor, after some hesitation, and with the advice of his council, accepted these offers, and returned home.

He next turned his arms against the Drevlians, resolving to subject them to a more considerable tribute than they had yet paid. In this war he was successful, and returned laden with the spoils of cruelty and oppression. But his avarice was not satisfied. Dismissing a great part of his troops with the exacted booty, he returned to the country of the Drevlians, to demand of them a second contribution. This being freely granted, he insisted on a threefold payment, and, to enforce it, advanced into the country, where he fell by an ambuscade which the people, rendered desperate by his extortions, had laid for him. "This is a mere wolf," said they, "who begins by stealing the sheep one by one, and then comes to fetch away the whole flock: he must be knocked on the head." This happened in 945, in the neighbourhood of Korosten, one of their towns.

OLGA.

BEGAN TO REIGN 945, DIED 969.

IGOR left one son, named Sviatoslaf, but as he was very young at the time of his father's death, his mother, Olga, assumed the reins of government, being assisted by the counsels and valour of Sventeld.

The first care of the Regent was to avenge the death of her husband on the Drevlians. The prince of that people, thinking it a favourable opportunity of enlarging

his dominions, sent ambassadors to Olga, with the offer of his hand. The widowed Queen appeared to favour the proposal; but secretly caused the members of this first embassy to be slain, as she did those of a second, which was afterwards sent to her at her own request. Artfully concealing these murders, she set out for the country of the Drevlians; and, on her arrival, caused a solemn entertainment to be held, at which several hundreds of their principal persons were assassinated by her command. This was only the first act of her vengeance. She immediately proceeded to ravage the whole country, especially Korosten; and having received the submission of the inhabitants, returned to Novgorod in triumph.

Soon after these shocking transactions, Olga repaired to Constantinople, and was there baptized, according to the rites of the Greek Church. The Emperor himself led her to the font, and gave her the name of Helen. He is also said to have dismissed her with rich presents, among which were vases of great price, and a quantity of fine stuffs which were then fabricated only in the east.

On her return to Russia, she found that few of her subjects were inclined to imitate the example of her baptism; she had priests only in private; and her own son persisted in the pagan belief of his fathers.

It is recorded, to the honour of this princess, that she caused bridges to be built in several places, and roads to be made for the convenience of trade;—that she constructed towns and villages, and founded such laudable institutions, as evince that she had some knowledge of the duties of a sovereign.

SVIATOSLAF I.

BEGAN TO REIGN DIED 973.

It is not known at what time Sviatoslaf assumed the government; but the most probable opinion is, that it was transferred to him by his mother, at her departure to Constantinople.

This prince was distinguished by fierceness and courage. The first war that he undertook was against the Kosares, who, it is supposed, were of Turkish origin. He defeated them in a pitched battle, and afterwards took their capital city, Sarkel; or, as it is called in the Russian language, Bela-vess, or the white town.

He then assisted Nicephorus Phocas in punishing the Bulgarians for their secret and perfidious alliance with the Ungrians. He captured most of their towns along the Danube, and resolved to establish on the shores of that river, the seat of his empire. But while he was thus pursuing his ambitious conquests, he nearly lost his family, and his ancient capital. The Petchenegans came in great numbers, and laid such close siege to Kief, that the city could neither admit refreshment, nor give notice of the perils with which it was menaced. A general named Pritch came to its succour, but alarmed at the superior numbers of the enemy, he halted on the opposite side of the river. Fearing, however, that if he neglected to attack the enemy, he should incur the displeasure of his sovereign, he embarked his troops at break of day. The shouts of the soldiers, and the sound of the trumpets, answered by the military instruments of the town, struck terror into the minds of the Petchenegans, who, supposing that Sviatoslaf had arrived with the whole of his army, fled in haste. Thus the town was saved; and the Princess-mother, with her grandchildren, walked out of it before her deliverer.

Sviatoslaf having heard of the incursion of the Petchenegans, hastened to the spot, defeated them, pursued them, and granted them a peace.

But no sooner had he restored security to his country, than he prepared to return to the banks of the Danube, where he still determined to fix the seat of his empire. Hither he drew from Greece, gold, rich stuffs, fruits and wine; Hungary supplied him with gold and horses; and he caused wax, hydromel, and furs to be brought him from Russia. It was with difficulty that his mother, who perceived her end approaching, could detain him with her; and immediately on her decease, he resumed his former design. Reserving to himself the supreme power, he partitioned his states among his

children: he gave Kief to Yaropolk, the country of the Drevlians to Oleg, and Novgorod to Vladimir, a natural son by one of the attendants of Olga. This example of partitioning the country was too frequently followed by the successors of Sviatoslaf, and eventually brought Russia to the brink of ruin.

Having made these arrangements for the internal administration of the state, he commenced his march against the Bulgarians, who suffered him to advance to the walls of Pereïaslavetz, but there fell upon him with no less fury than courage. The Russians repulsed, slaughtered, and already defeated, thought only of defending their lives; or, deriving courage from despair, of parting with them as dearly as they could. Rage, however, imparted to them fresh vigour; the astonished conquerors fell back, were confused, dispersed, and surrendered to Sviatoslaf both the victory and their town. He regained possession of Bulgaria, and ravaged it with greater cruelty than before.

In the mean time, Nicephorus was assassinated by John Zimisces, who succeeded him. It was now discovered that it was the latter who had himself called in the Russians to Bulgaria, on condition that they would not hold it for themselves; but, in violation of their promise, they retained it in their possession. To this they were excited by the patrician Kalocer, who had treated with them in the name of Phocas, and who having formed a design of raising himself to the imperial throne, flattered their wishes, that he might secure their alliance.

The interests of Kalocer thus coinciding with those of Sviatoslaf, the Russians refused to listen to the ambassador of Zimisces, who required them to adhere to their treaty, and evacuate Bulgaria.

The Grecian emperor was preparing to open the campaign at the return of spring; and Sviatoslaf, in order to oppose him with success, united with his own troops the Petchenegans, Hungarians, and Bulgarians, and thus had the command, it is said, of 300,000 men. He made an irruption into Thrace, desolated the country, and erected his camp before Adrianople: but

he was defeated by a stratagem of the commandant of that town.

The Russians, however, remained masters of Pereïaslavetz, and Zimisces, with the view of driving them thence, marched against them the following year. The city was taken by assault; but eight thousand Russians defeated the troops that opposed themselves to their impetuosity, and took refuge in the royal citadel. This fortification was supposed to be impregnable; but the besiegers succeeded in setting it on fire. No resource being left to the wretches who were shut up within its walls, many of them leaped from the summit of the rock, the greater part perished in the flames, and the remainder were carried into captivity.

The Russian prince, afflicted though not desponding at the loss of the city, kept the field, at the head of his remaining troops, and exhibited a dreadful example of ferocity, by causing 300 Bulgarians to be slain, of whose fidelity he entertained suspicion.

The Emperor followed up his victory, and subdued several towns. Durostole, on the Danube was the most considerable of those that remained, and of this he hastened to commence the siege. Having repulsed the Russians in an obstinate combat, he blockaded it both by land and sea, and reduced it to the greatest straits. Its defenders, however, shewed no abatement of their courage, but even made frequent sallies on the besiegers, in one of which Sviatoslaf himself was almost taken captive. His counsellors advised him to sue for peace, but he preferred death to submission. He ordered a general sortie to be made the next day; and having no hope but in victory, commanded the gates to be shut as soon as the soldiers were without the town. His commands were obeyed; but after a bloody combat, the Russians were beaten and dispersed, and he was reduced to the necessity of applying for peace. This victory appeared so important to the Greeks, that they ascribed it to a miracle, pretending that Theodore the martyr fought for them on a white horse.

Sviatoslaf, followed by the wreck of his army, regained the road to his ancient domains, and, in opposition to the advice of the faithful Sventeld, embarked on

the Borysthenes. The Petchenegans, being informed of the route he had taken, waited for him near the rocks, by which the famous cataracts of that river are formed. Here he was obliged to winter, and had to experience all the horrors of famine. On the return of spring, he made a desperate effort to force a passage through the ranks of his enemies, but was defeated and slain. His skull, ornamented with a circle of gold, was used as a goblet by the Prince of the Petchenegans, after causing it to be inscribed with the following sentence: "In seeking the property of others, thou didst lose thine own." Sventeld regained Kief with the feeble remains of the army, and informed Yaropolk of the death of his father.

YAROPOLK I.

BEGAN TO REIGN 972 DIED 981.

THE sons of Sviatoslaf preserved the sovereignty of the countries which their father had divided among them, but soon involved themselves in mutual and destructive wars.

Oleg having met the son of Sventeld in a hunting party, fell furiously upon him, and slew him with his own hand.

The unhappy father, thirsting for vengeance, inflamed the ambition of Yaropolk, and excited him to take up arms against Oleg. The Prince of Kief invaded the territory of the Drevlians: the two brothers met in battle: Oleg was defeated, and crossing a bridge in his flight, was either smothered, or drowned. Remorse now seized the breast of Yaropolk; he threw himself, weeping, on the insensible remains of his brother, and vented his passion in accusations against himself and Sventeld. Vladimir, in a state of despondency, retired to the Varagians, leaving his estates to Yaropolk, who seized upon them, and divided them among his Voyevodes.

But Vladimir, though a fugitive, and without an army, never renounced the design of recovering his kingdom. Having obtained assistance from the Varagians, he re-entered Novgorod, without resistance; and on sending back the Voyevodes of Yaropolk, charged them to tell their master, that he should soon visit him with a powerful army.

A short time after, he advanced towards Kief, where there was nothing in preparation to oppose his attacks. A favourite Voyevode of Yaropolk, whose name was Blude, and who had been bought over by Vladimir, contrived to lull his Prince into a fatal security. In the mean time, the town, which was naturally strong, was bravely defended by its inhabitants. The traitor, perceiving this, excited suspicions of their fidelity in the breast of his master, and persuaded him to hasten his flight, while it was yet in his power, if he would avoid being betrayed into the hands of his brother. The citizens, deserted by their Prince, were obliged to admit his rival.

Yaropolk, perpetually pursued by his brother, and a prey to the horrors of famine, determined to throw himself into the hands of Vladimir; but before he could execute his purpose, he was murdered by some Varagians.

VLADIMIR.

BEGAN TO REIGN 981, DIED 1015.

VLADIMIR, having employed the infamous Blude as the instrument of his nefarious successes, heaped dignities upon him for three days; but that period being elapsed, he put him to death, having first addressed him in these words: I have fulfilled my promise; I have treated thee as my friend; thy honours exceed thy most sanguine wishes: to-day, as judge, I condemn the traitor, and the assassin of his Prince.

As the Varagians had enabled Vladimir to regain the throne of Novgorod, they thought they had a right

to require that he should compel the Kievians to pay them a tribute. Vladimir feared to offend them by a positive refusal, and therefore amused them by promises and delays, until they lessened their demands, and merely asked permission to seek their fortunes in Greece. With this request he readily complied, but secretly informed the emperor of their departure, praying him to cause their arrest, and by dispersing them over different parts of his dominions, to prevent their becoming formidable, either to Russia, or to the Empire.

To relate all the warlike expeditions of Vladimir, would excite little or no interest in the mind of the reader; suffice it to mention, that besides the conquest of some parts of Poland, he reduced several neighbouring tribes, especially those inhabiting the districts which now form the government of Ragan on the banks of the Volga, the Yaik, and the Kaima. A circumstance, however, is recorded, which at once shews the ferocity of his character, and the sanguinary superstition of his subjects. Having achieved his numerous victories, he resolved to return thanks to his idol deities, by sacrificing on their altars the captives whom he had taken in war; but his courtiers persuaded him that a victim selected from his own people would be a more acceptable offering. The choice fell upon a young Varagian, the son of a Christian, and professing the same faith. The unhappy father refused to deliver up the victim. The monarch enraged at the disobedience offered to his commands, ordered the doors of the house to be forced: he was obeyed; and the father and son were furiously immolated in each others arms. Not satisfied with this diabolical rite, Vladimir ordered the number of idols to be increased in the city of Kief; and erected a new and superb statue to the god Perune, in the principality of Novgorod. But the time was at hand, when this barbaric prince was himself to renounce the religion of his fathers, and to assume the profession of the Christian faith.

Already the grandeur of the Russian monarch had attracted the notice of neighbouring princes. They all courted his favour, and desired to bind him to their friendship by the ties of one common religion. Ac-

cordingly he received, at almost the same time, deputies from the pope, or from some Catholic prince, who wished to allure him to the church of Rome; missionaries from Bulgaria, exhorting him to embrace the Mohammedan faith; and even Jews, from among the Kozares, who came to expound to him the law of Moses. But none of these deputies were honoured with success. A mission more fortunate was that of a Greek who, if he did not induce Vladimir to imbibe his doctrine, prevailed on him to think favourably of it, and returned to his country laden with presents.

The discourse of the Greek had made a lively impression on the mind of the prince; and, desirous of gaining fuller information of the various systems of faith of which he had heard, he dispatched ten persons, in high reputation for wisdom, to observe and examine, in the countries where each of them was professed, their different principles and rites.

These sages repaired first to the Bulgarians, but they were not much affected with the Manicheean and Mohammedan modes of worship. Thence they passed into Germany, where they took no interest in the Catholic rites as celebrated in the midst of poverty, and by a common priest. But when they arrived at Constantinople, and beheld the Greek worship amidst the splendid decoration of the basilicum of St. Sophia, they were rapt in delight, and declared that a people whose religion was invested with such pomp, must be in possession of the true faith.

Their imaginations being still inflamed with the imposing spectacle which they had been permitted to witness, they returned to Vladimir, speaking of the Latin ritual with indifference and contempt, but extolling with the highest praises what they had seen in the imperial city. They said that they thought themselves transported into heaven, and requested to return to Constantinople, that they might receive the rite of Baptism.

This recital confirmed the impression which the discourse of the Greek had made on Vladimir. The boyars of his council, who easily perceived the sentiments that were passing in his mind, exclaimed that the

Greek religion must, without doubt, be the true one, since it had been so highly praised by the wise deputies, and had been embraced by so prudent a princess as Olga.

Vladimir immediately determined in favour of the Greek religion; but he had no priests at hand to administer to him its initiatory rite. To ask them of the Emperor was a species of homage, from the very idea of which his proud spirit revolted. He therefore conceived a project worthy of himself, and of the barbarous age in which he lived: it was to carry war into Greece, and by force of arms to extort instruction, priests, and baptism. Without the least delay, he prepared to carry his design into execution. He collects a numerous army from the different nations of his empire, repairs to the Chersonese, and advances to the walls of Theodosia, now called Caffa. According to one of the Russian chronicles, he there offered this prayer: "O God! grant me thy assistance to take this town, that I may carry from it Christians and priests, to instruct me and my people, and convey the true religion into my dominions!" He laid siege to the city, destroyed his enemies, and lost a great number of soldiers; thousands of men perished, because a barbarian disdained to be baptized like an ordinary person.

However, after the city had been besieged six months, Vladimir had made no progress; he was even threatened with being obliged to raise the siege; but a traitorous citizen, said to have been a priest, fastened a letter to an arrow, and shot it from the top of the ramparts. The Russians learnt from this writing that behind their camp there was a spring, which, by subterraneous pipes, furnished the only supply of fresh water to the besieged. Vladimir ordered this source to be traced: it was discovered, the pipes were broken, and the city, being exposed to all the horrors of thirst, was compelled to surrender. Having thus become master of Theodosia, he obtained possession of all the Chersonese.

In consequence of this victory, he was at liberty to receive baptism in the manner he desired. But this rite was not the sole object of his ambition; he aspired to an union by the ties of blood with the Emperors of

the east. Persuaded that he had become too formidable to incur a refusal, he sent to the Emperors Basilius and Constantine, to demand their sister in marriage, and to assure them, that if they dared to reject his proposal, he would treat their capital as he had treated Theodosia. The Emperors, after some hesitation, hazarded conditions, requiring, that at least, the Russian prince should embrace Christianity; but at length, being too weak to prolong the contest, they conveyed to him their sister, who was not greatly flattered by the conquest she had made.

Vladimir then received some instruction in the Christian religion, was baptized by the name of Basil, married the princess Anna, restored to his brothers-in-law the territory of which he had plundered them, and obtained as the reward of his victories, some archimandrites and popes, sacred vessels and church books, images and relics of saints.

On his return to Kief he was wholly occupied in abolishing the idols which had been lately the objects of his adoration. As Perune was esteemed the supreme deity by the Russians, it was him that Vladimir, after his conversion, determined to treat with the greatest contempt. He caused him to be tied to the tail of a horse, to be dragged through the city with every mark of indignity, and then to be sunk in the Borysthenes. Thus was the conduct of Vladimir alike brutish in worshipping a misshapen block, and in wishing to punish the insensible mass for the adorations which it had received.

Soon after this occurrence, the Russian Monarch issued a proclamation, in which he ordered all the inhabitants of Kief to repair, the next morning, to the banks of the river, to be baptized. They joyfully obeyed, declaring that if it was not good to be baptized, "the prince and the boyars would never submit to it.

Vladimir, in the sequel of his reign, carried on many wars, but principally against the Petchenegans. In one of the excursions made by that people, and on the eve of an engagement, their prince advanced, and proposed to Vladimir, to decide the quarrel by single combat between two champions. The people, whose

soldier should be vanquished, should be bound to abstain for three years from taking arms against the other nation.

The Russian prince faintly accepted the proposal, because he had no soldier of sufficient strength to oppose to the champion of the Petchenegans. When the day appointed for the combat arrived, he was obliged to solicit a farther delay. This was granted to him, but he knew not how to derive advantage from it, until a veteran soldier who served in the army with four of his sons, came and told him, that he had still a fifth son at home, endowed with prodigious strength. The young man was sent for in haste, and being brought before the prince, he made a public and satisfactory trial of his force. The time fixed for the contest arrived: the champions advanced between the two camps, and the Petchenegan could not repress a disdainful smile, on beholding the apparent weakness of his beardless adversary. But being presently attacked with no less impetuosity than vigour by the young Russian, he was stretched expiring on the dust.

The Petchenegans seeing their champion fallen, were seized with terror and took to flight. The Russians, profiting by this confusion, pursued them, and overthrew them with great slaughter.

The victorious champion who was only a simple currier, was raised with his father to the rank of nobility, and gave his name to the town which the prince caused to be built on the site of the combat. It was called Pereïaslavl.

At the end of three years, the Petchenegans renewed the war. They laid siege to a town which Vladimir was endeavouring to succour; but being defeated and wounded, it was only by hiding himself under a bridge that he saved his life.

The last days of this prince were embittered by domestic vexations. The death of his son and that of his wife were mournful tributes which he paid to nature; but a trial more severe awaited him. His son Yaroslaf, to whom, in the partition of his dominions, he had given Novgorod, refused to pay the tribute he owed him as a vassal, and even implored help against him from

the Varagians. The aged Vladimir, obliged to march against a rebellious son, died of grief on the road, after having reigned 45 years. He who had embrued his hands in the blood of his brother Yaropolk, fell a victim to the rebellion of his own son.

This prince had great qualities: if his courage did not enable him to repress his turbulent neighbours, it generally defeated the purpose of their incursions. He was eminent for liberality to his poor subjects. Those who could repair to the palace of their prince shared his bounty, under his immediate inspection; and carriages were appointed to convey relief to the houses of the sick. He sent forth colonies to clear and people the deserts; and built towns, one of which was called by his name, and has since fallen, with all Volhynia, under the dominion of Poland.

While he was conferring the most substantial benefits upon his country, he did not neglect its embellishment. He invited architects and workmen from Greece, who built several churches and palaces, to the great displeasure of the old Russians, who were averse to the introduction of strange arts. The young nobles were educated in seminaries founded by the prince, to which his munificence attracted superior masters from Greece. Parents saw with horror these strokes aimed at ignorance, and Vladimir was even obliged to use violence in taking their children to place them in the new establishment. But if he could not imbue his subjects with the love of learning, he is entitled to praise for his ardent desires, and noble efforts to afford them the means of instruction. Living in a barbarous age, he remained a barbarian; but, if he had lived in the seventeenth century, he might have been the Peter the Great of his day,—the enlightener and reformer of his people.

The knowledge of Christianity which Vladimir attained, was, it is evident, very imperfect; and yet it was sufficient to exert a benign influence over his temper and conduct. While a pagan, he had several wives and numerous concubines; but after his baptism, he is said to have been a pattern of conjugal fidelity. In his idolatrous state, he delighted in the effusion of innocent blood; having assumed the Christian name, he

revolted even from the punishment of criminals, exclaiming, "What am I, that I should condemn a fellow-creature to death!"

This prince divided his estates among his children, an example which was imitated, not only by his successors in the chief sovereignty of Russia, but by their brothers and descendants. Thus, in course of time, the country was divided into a great number of petty sovereignties, many of which were nothing better than villages; and a feudal government sprang up, the chiefs of which were not ordinary nobles, as in the other nations of Europe, but princes of the blood of Rurik.

The Russian church has enrolled Vladimir among the number of her saints, and history, to distinguish him from other princes who have borne his name, has conferred upon him the surname of *Great*.

SVIATOPOLK I.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1015, DIED 1019.

SVIATOPOLK, one of Vladimir's sons, who was at Kief when the news came thither of his father's death, determined to raise himself to the supreme power, and in pursuit of this design, to remove his brothers, either by fraud or violence. He dreaded none of them so much as Boris, who had been the favourite of his father, and the idol of the nation. Had this prince, who was absent on an expedition against the Petchenegans, complied with the entreaty of his soldiers, and accepted their assistance to place himself on the throne of Kief, the expulsion of Sviatopolk might have been easily effected. But he rejected the advice and even the prayers of his army, declaring it to be just that his eldest brother should succeed to the throne. The soldiers, fearing the wrath of his brother, deserted him; and villains commissioned by Sviatopolk dispatched him in his tent. Two others of the brethren were as-

sassinated in different ways; and the rest lived in expectation of the same fate.

Yaroslaf, prince of Novgorod, ventured, however, to oppose force to the designs of the cruel and ambitious brother. Aided by his subjects, he expelled Sviatopolk from Kief, who fled to Poland, and took refuge with his father-in-law, the duke of that country. Boleslaus was easily induced to accompany his son-in-law with an army into Russia, hoping to regain some conquests which Vladimir had made in Poland. Kief was taken by the Poles, and Sviatopolk, in 1017, set up again. Yaroslaf, thus deposed, fled to Novgorod, and carried with him the news of his own defeat. Disheartened by his misfortunes, he resolved to take refuge with the Varagians; but as soon as his intentions were known to the inhabitants, they opposed his flight, burnt the vessels in which he had designed to embark, and even raised contributions, to enable him to recover his throne. The attainment of this object was facilitated by Sviatopolk himself. Though he owed his crown to his Polish auxiliaries, he gave secret orders to destroy them by a general massacre. Boleslaus being extremely incensed at this act of treachery and ingratitude, withdrew from Russia, carried with him the principal treasures of Kief, and took possession of several places on the Russian frontiers.

Sviatopolk, abandoned to himself, sought assistance against Yaroslaf, from the Petchenegans, the hereditary foes of Russia. The hope of booty soon excited them to espouse his cause, and to embark, under his command, in an expedition to that country. A battle was fought between them and the Novgorodians, with their auxiliaries, under Yaroslaf, in 1019, near to the place where Boris had been stabbed by the orders of his brother. This cruel transaction was wisely improved by Yaroslaf for animating the courage of his warriors. He exhorted them to stand firm in battle against a man who, like the first murderer, had shed the blood of his brother; and offered a solemn prayer, that God would make him and his army the instruments of avenging the death of the innocent. This wrought so powerfully on Yaroslaf's troops, that notwithstanding the superiority

of the enemy in number, after a long and bloody combat, they came off victorious. Sviatopolk, immediately on his defeat, took to flight, and died on the road. Yaroslaf rewarded his faithful adherents, by giving to their city a body of laws, still known by the name of the municipal law of Novgorod, and by which it was settled into a calm and prosperous state.

YAROSLAF.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1019, DIED 1054

THUS Yaroslaf was instated in the possession of Kief, and of the throne of his father. But his tranquillity was of short duration. His nephew, the prince of Polotsk, took Novgorod by assault, and retired with considerable booty, and a great number of prisoners. Yaroslaf having heard of this invasion, pursued and overtook the conqueror; he wrested from him his prey, and punished him by adding two towns to the estates which he already enjoyed. By this rare act of clemency and generosity, he made him a grateful ally, whose zeal and fidelity never deceived him.

This prince was soon called to endure a severer mortification than the capture of Novgorod. His brother Mstislaf had received for his inheritance Tmoutarakan, a town situated in the isle of Taman, upon a strait which separates that island from the Crimea. This Mstislaf had carried on a war against his neighbours the Kozacks, and had slain in single combat their prince, a man of ferocious courage, and extraordinary strength. Flushed with this victory, he laid siege to Kief, and was repulsed; but retiring to Tchernigof, he took possession of that city, and made it the capital of his dominions. Thither Yaroslaf pursued him, being determined to spoil him of his conquest, and to drive him back to his original domains. But Mstislaf, taking advantage of a stormy night, came upon his brother by surprise, and defeated him amidst all the terrors of thunder and lightning.

A little after, the Prince of Kief attacked Boleslaus, the king of Poland, and was vanquished. Enfeebled and humbled by these two defeats, he made peace with Mstislaf, and conferred upon him that part of Russia which lies to the east and the south of the Borysthenes. By this arrangement, he reserved to himself the principality of Rostof, that of Kief, the extensive country of which Novgorod was the capital, and a considerable district which then formed part of Poland and Lithuania.

The two brothers reigned amicably together, until the death of Mstislaf, in 1036, when the countries which had been ceded to him were re-united to the principality of Novgorod.

Yaroslaf contributed largely to the security and the extension of the Russian dominions. He conquered Livonia, which was then inhabited by the Tschudes; and profiting by the troubles of the Poles, recovered Red Russia, which they had taken from him in the time of their glory. The Petchenegans were so humbled by him that they never afterwards dared to attack Russia.

In consequence of an affray between some Russians and Greeks at Constantinople, in which a distinguished person among the former was slain, the grand-prince levied an army of 100,000 men, whom he sent into Greece, under the command of his son Vladimir, prince of Novgorod.

Constantine XI. who then swayed the sceptre of the eastern empire, wished to avoid all collision with a people who warred with fury, and whose alliance was of importance and benefit to his subjects. He therefore endeavoured to appease the resentment of Yaroslaf, by an embassy, which was commissioned to offer him satisfaction for the offence which had been committed; but it was received with coolness, and treated with contempt.

The Emperor perceived that it was impossible to preserve peace. He therefore caused the Russians who were found in Greece, to be dispersed into different parts of the empire, and to be closely watched. He speedily equipped the gallies and light boats;—embarked in the imperial vessel himself;—and hastened to attack

the Russians, who had already arrived at a port of the Black Sea, near to the straits of Constantinople. A numerous cavalry lined the shore, and followed the fleet.

Constantine still wishing to try the effect of negociation, made new offers of peace: but Vladimir rejected them, declaring that he would not lay down his arms until the Greeks should have paid a sum of gold to each of his soldiers. This was a positive refusal of all accommodation. The battle was commenced; and the Greek fire having consumed many of the Russian boats, the rest were thrown into disorder. Immediately a storm arose, which occasioned little mischief to the Greek vessels, as they were well constructed, and skilfully managed; but which shattered, and dispersed the light and frail barks of the Russians. Of these, many were dashed against the rocks in which these coasts abound; others were cast upon the shore, where the Greeks waited for them, and slaughtered their miserable crews.

The tempest being appeased, a squadron of twenty-four gallies was sent in pursuit of the Russians; but the fortune of battle was now changed. Four Grecian vessels were taken, and among them that of the commander; the rest were dashed against the rocks. The greater part of the pursuers met death or imprisonment; and those who could reach the shore, returned to Constantinople, naked, and half dead with famine.

But the advantage which was thus gained by the Russians was a small compensation for the losses which they had sustained, and which were aggravated on their return. Those who sought their home by land were defeated on the road, and the Greeks had the barbarity to put out the eyes of all the prisoners who fell into their hands: they seemed anxious to set an example of ferocity to those whom they denominated barbarians. Three years after, a peace was made.

Yaroslaf died in the 77th year of his age, after a reign of 35 years. He was upon the whole a prince of amiable character, and laboured to promote the welfare of his subjects. He was very studious, and a great reader. He caused large numbers of Greek books to be translated into the vernacular tongue, and then dispersed them by means of copyists. During his reign,

painting was called from Greece into Russia. The Temple of St. Sophia at Novgorod was decorated with pictures drawn on a ground of gold, and with Mosaic work, both which are said to remain to the present time.

Yaroslaf established at Novgorod a school, in which three hundred children were educated. He founded numerous churches, and secured an honourable revenue to the clergy, on condition that they should devote all their care to the instruction of the people. He provided in various ways for the more general dissemination of the Christian doctrine; but withal, gave an example of superstition, which was not very common, even in those days. Concerned for the fate of his uncles Yaropolk and Oleg, who had died in the bosom of pagan idolatry, he caused their bones to be disinterred and baptized, hoping, that by this means he should secure their eternal welfare.

The extent of his dominions, and the splendour of his reign rendered him the chief sovereign of the north. Perhaps even his expedition against Greece, though unfortunate, contributed to the spread of his renown. The first daughter of this prince was married to the King of Norway; the second to Henry I. King of France; the third, to Andrew I. King of Hungary. His first son, Vladimir, who died before his father, had for his wife a daughter of Harold, who was afterwards the last king of England of the Saxon race; while his fourth was united to the daughter of Constantine, the emperor of the East. By these and other affinities, Yaroslaf was allied to some of the most distinguished sovereigns of the age.

This monarch followed the unhappy example of his father, by dividing his empire among his sons, who were named Isiaslaf, Sviatoslaf, Tsevolod, Igor and Viatcheslaf. The first three occupied successively the principal throne of Russia.

ISIASLAF I.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1054, DIED 1078.

THE eldest son of Yaroslaf, who received at his baptism the name of Dmitri, and who is sometimes known under the name of Demetrius, is called Isiaslaf in Russian history. He reigned, after his father, over the two chief principalities of Russia, Kief and Novgorod.

Vseslaf, at this time, governed Polotsk. He was son of that prince of Polotsk who dared to attack his uncle Yaroslaf, and who was treated by him with so great magnanimity after his defeat. Without any known subject of complaint, he undertook a war against the son of his father's benefactor, entered Novgorod, which made but a feeble defence, and ravaged it with fire and sword.

Isiaslaf and his brothers, Sviatoslaf and Vsevolod, took the field, on the first news of this attack; wasted the inheritance of the imprudent aggressor, who, in the ardour of ambition, had neglected the defence of his own estates; and vanquished him in a pitched battle. Their success, however, does not appear to have been decisive. They invited Vseslaf to a conference, swearing by the cross, that his person should be safe. Full of confidence in this solemn oath, he presented himself at the tent of Isiaslaf, who caused him to be arrested and conducted to Kief, where he was thrown into a frightful prison.

The Polovtzes, soon after, made a fresh incursion, in which the three Russian princes were completely defeated. On this occasion, the Kievians revolted, delivered Vseslaf from prison, and placed him on the throne. Isiaslaf fled to Poland, and having obtained assistance from Boleslaus II., regained possession of Kief. Having scarcely allowed himself time for repose, he pursued the fugitive Vseslaf, deprived him of his estates, and conferred them on one of his own sons.

But the grand-prince was soon involved in new *troubles.* These were occasioned by his brother Sviato-

slaf, who could not be content with the sovereignty of Tchernigof, which his father had allotted to him in the division of the empire. This prince, being too weak to attempt the dethronement of Isiaslaf with his own forces alone, united his brother Vsevolod in his nefarious design. The two brothers having combined their armies, marched to the attack of Kief; but its affrighted sovereign did not wait to receive them. Distrusting the fidelity of his subjects, he fled with his wife and children; and Sviatoslaf ascended his throne.

Isiaslaf, having applied in vain to the Poles for succour, implored help of the Emperor Henry IV. who was then at Mentz. He even went so far as to offer to accept his dominions, as a fief of that Monarch; but Henry was unable to grant him the assistance which he desired. He then repaired for relief to the Roman Pontiff, who, ever ready to give away what was not his own, invested him with the sovereignty of Russia, and commisioned the Duke of Poland to support him, to the utmost of his power. The Pope was induced to take this step, from the hope, that if Isiaslaf should regain his throne, he would acknowledge the supremacy of his holiness, and make Russia a tributary to the see of Rome.

Isiaslaf being at length assisted by the Polish sovereign, was restored to his dominions; but was soon after slain in battle against Boris and Oleg, who had driven his brother Vsevolod from the throne.

From the death of Isiaslaf to the invasion of the Mongol Tartars, the history of Russia consists chiefly of a series of civil wars which her princes carried on against each other, and by which they at last rendered her an easy prey to foreign aggression and conquest. To detail the battles that were fought, and to enumerate the thousands of men that were slain on the altar of ambition, during these calamitous times, would fatigue the attention, without instructing the mind of the reader. It is thought proper, therefore, to furnish only a brief sketch of several of the following reigns.

VSEVOLOD I.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1078, DIED 1093.

ISIASLAF was succeeded by his brother Vsevolod. At an early period after his accession, this sovereign was attacked by his nephew Yaropolk, whom he had treated with great kindness and affection. His son Vladimir marched against the ungrateful prince, and having defeated him, compelled him to take refuge in Poland. Driven from this asylum, he threw himself on the mercy of Vladimir, who, with the consent of his father, pardoned him, and restored to him his estates.

Vsevolod reigned 15 years at Kief, where he died at sixty-four years of age. He was a humane and virtuous, but weak prince. His reign was remarkable for two events: a pestilence which swept off great numbers of his subjects; and an embassy from the pope (Urban II.) which presented him with many of the relics of the Catholic church.

SVIATOPOLK II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1093, DIED 1113.

THE Polovtzes, informed of the death of Vsevolod, and of the good understanding which reigned among the princes of Russia, requested a continuance of peace. Sviatopolk supposing that this request was an indication of their weakness, rejected it, and threw their ambassadors into prison.

The Polovtzes, fired with indignation, entered Russia, and laid siege to the town of Tortchesk. Sviatopolk perceived his folly, but too late. He restored liberty to the ambassadors, endeavoured to make them forget the injury they had received, and sued for peace; but the Polovtzes disdained to listen to his proposals, and prosecuted the war with increasing vigour.

The grand-prince, feeling the weakness of his resources, applied for succour to his brother Vladimir, the governor of Tchernigog. This generous prince, not content with arming his own subjects, entreated his brother Rostislaf not to abandon, in so critical a juncture, the principal sovereign of Russia; and the two brothers united their forces on the neighbouring plains of Kief.

The combined armies fought against the Polovtzes, but without success. Their ranks were broken, and the grand-prince himself was obliged to seek safety in flight: Rostislaf was drowned while attempting to cross a river in his retreat, and Vladimir escaped with difficulty into his own domains.

The prince of Kief, left to his own forces, vainly endeavoured to throw succours into Tortchesk. The inhabitants, weakened by disease, and despairing of relief, surrendered themselves to the enraged conquerors. Being sent away prisoners, most of them perished of cold and hunger; and their city was burnt to ashes.

Sviatopolk, humbled by defeat, supplicated that peace, which he had been the first to violate. It was granted to him; and to render it permanent, he married the daughter of Tougovkan, one of the princes of the Polovtzes.

The repose of Russia was of short continuance. Oleg, the son of the perfidious Sviatoslaf, who dethroned his brother Isiaslaf, engaged the Polovtzes again to take up arms. Having placed themselves under his command, they fell upon Tchernigof, where Vladimir reigned. This prince being unable to resist their attack, surrendered the city into their hands, and retired to Pereïaslavl, which had been the fiefdom of his unfortunate brother.*

Two chiefs of the Polovtzes, Itlar and Kitan, presented themselves before Pereïslavl, to treat of peace with Vladimir. This prince sent his son into their camp as a hostage, and Itlar entered into the town, to arrange with him the conditions of the treaty.

At the same time, Sviatopolk sent an ambassador to Vladimir, for the adjustment of certain affairs, which are

* Oleg's plea for undertaking this war, was founded upon the circumstance, that his father had once possessed Tchernigof.

not particularised. This wretch, whose name was Slavata, counselled Vladimir to assassinate Itlar, who was residing with him as a messenger of peace, and for whose safety the public honour was pledged. At first, the Russian prince revolted from this treacherous and cruel deed; but at length, being overcome by the importunities of his brother's envoy, and of his own counsellors, he consented to its perpetration.

Slavata went out during the night, with some Turks, who were in the service of Vladimir. They arrived at the camp of the Polovtzes, and having withdrawn the young prince, who was feebly guarded, they massacred them in great numbers, and left Kitan himself among the slain.

Itlar, who was ignorant of the fate which had befallen his companions in arms, consented to repair to a feast to which his faithless host invited him, and was pierced to death with arrows, by assassins who had been hired for the cruel purpose.

Vladimir, justly expecting an attack from the Polovtzes, marched against them with Sviatopolk. The Russian princes were successful in this expedition, and returned laden with booty, which consisted of horses, horned cattle, and camels.

But the Polovtzes, though defeated, were not subdued. They re-entered Russia, almost upon the heels of their conquerors, and having spread desolation in their march, consented to a peace. This peace, however, was soon broken; for, in the following year, they renewed their incursions with three armies, and again wasted the country on every side. To these evils were added the treacheries of Oleg, and the ravages of locusts, so that Russia seemed to be brought to the verge of destruction.

Sviatopolk and Vladimir wishing to re-establish order and repose, agreed to hold a congress at Kief. They requested Oleg to be present, that order might be restored to the different sovereignties, in the presence of the bishops and abbots, the faithful servants both of their fathers and of the citizens. But this haughty prince replied that he would not consent to be judged by bishops, monks, and a vile populace: and added *other reproachful* language, which could only serve to

irritate the wound, which the proposed congress was intended to heal.

Sviatopolk, Vladimir, and several other princes combined against him, and he was obliged to sue for peace. He now bound himself by an oath to attend the conference; but instead of fulfilling this sacred engagement, he repaired to Smolensk, for the purpose of obtaining help from his brother. Being provided with an army, he marched against Isiaslaf, the son of Vladimir, and having conquered him in battle, took possession of his capital, whose name was was Mourom.

Mstislaf, another son of Vladimir, Sovereign of Novgorod, marched against Oleg, who, knowing how little his new subjects were attached to him, avoided battle, and retired from town to town. Driven from one retreat to another, abandoned by friends, and pursued by foes, he must without doubt have perished, had not the clemency of his conqueror interposed.

Mstislaf, moderate even in the midst of victory, offered him peace, and counselled him to implore the mercy of the princes, who might still relent, and preserve to him a part of his domains. Oleg, reduced to the last extremity, could not reject advice so generous and humane.

A congress was now held at Lubitch, composed of princes who were allied by the ties of blood, but disunited by their particular interests and claims. They made new divisions of their governments, and swore upon the cross, both to preserve peace among themselves, and to unite, with one consent, in opposing the first who should dare to trouble them.

Tranquillity seemed to be established on a solid basis; but the Russian princes soon fell into new disputes, and again desolated their country with all the horrors of civil war. Not content with turning their arms one against another, they called in foreign aid to aggravate the evils which their unoffending subjects were made to endure. At length, however, being exhausted alike by victories and defeats, they again made peace with each other, which was happily followed by peace with the Polovtzes.

The restless ambition of the Russian chiefs, unfitted them for the enjoyment of repose. They now invaded

the country of Poland; but Boleslaus, the sovereign of that country, defeated them, and recovered from them their spoil.

Two years after, they invaded the country of the Polovtzes, with whom they had sworn to maintain peace. In this expedition they were successful, and returned enriched with the plunder of the innocent.

The aged Sviatopolk, at the close of his days, had the satisfaction of witnessing the peace of his country, and the restoration of union among the princes of his blood.

VLADIMIR II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1114, DIED 1125.

On the death of Sviatopolk, the nobles elected Vladimir, the son of Vsevolod, and who was surnamed Monomachus. He at first refused to accept the crown from them, but afterwards yielded to their entreaties, and was welcomed to Kief with every demonstration of joy.

The first act of his reign was the expulsion of the Jews, who are said not only to have engrossed the commerce of the city, but to have committed usurious exactions upon its inhabitants. It is recorded, however, to his honour, that though he deemed it necessary to the welfare of his subjects to banish this people from his dominions, he suffered them to take their departure, without either insult or oppression.

Vladimir confirmed the power of the grand-princes over the inferior sovereigns of Russia, and knew how to keep them in subjection during his reign. Mstislaf, one of his sons, achieved conquests in Livonia; another of them, Yaropolk, defeated the Polovtzes, on the borders of the Don; a third, Yury, or George, obtained a complete victory over the Bulgarians, and made a great number of prisoners; and a fourth, André, or Andrey, was not less successful against Poland.

As Vladimir, by his wisdom and valour, knew how to maintain union among the princes of his blood, and to keep neighbouring nations in awe, his reign is not fertile in remarkable events. He died in 1125, aged 71 years, leaving eight sons, to each of whom he divided a portion of his dominions. The year which immediately preceded his death, was distinguished by a fire, which consumed the greatest part of Kief, and which lasted two whole days. The great number of houses and churches which is said to have fallen a prey to the flames, attests the primitive grandeur of this city, and the extent of its population.

MSTISLAF.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1125, DIED 1132.

On the death of Vladimir, Mstislaf, his eldest son, was put in peaceable possession of the government of Kief.

At the commencement of his reign, the Polovtzes, hoping to profit by the change of sovereigns, made an incursion into Russia. Their design was to plunder, and not to fight; but Yaropolk, the brother of Vladimir, and sovereign of Pereïaslavl, took the field against them, and defeated them with great slaughter.

Vsevolod, son of Oleg, took up arms against his uncle Yaroslaf, drove him from Tchernigof, and robbed and mnrdered the subjects of this unfortunate prince. Mstislaf, full of indignation at this cruel and unnatural conduct, determined to punish the wicked aggressor.

Vsevolod, apprised of the danger which threatened him, and adding to injustice a contempt of the good of his country, applied for succour to the Polovtzes. These barbarians again advanced into Russia, to the number of 7000; but wishing to ascertain from their new ally the conditions on which he expected their service, they stopped in their march, and sent deputies to him, who were assassinated on their return.

The Polovtzes, having received no intelligence of Vsevolod, and having lost their deputies, began to suspect some treachery, and returned to their home.

The son of Oleg, being deprived of his allies, was unable to defend himself against the attack of the combined princes. He therefore had recourse to treaty, hoping to propitiate in the cabinet those whom he feared to meet in the field.

The prince of Kief, who had sworn to avenge the injured Yaroslaf, was now divided between his love of peace, and his dread of perjury. In this perplexity, he sent for a venerable monk, whose name was Gregory, and submitted to him the direction of his conscience. "I consent" said the priest "and all the clergy with me, to take upon ourselves the guilt of the perjury. It is better to violate an oath, than to shed the blood of the innocent."

Mstislaf granted peace to Vsevolod; and this blessing, the sweets of which Russia had so seldom tasted, was diffused through all her provinces. But in vain did the Russians hope for continued repose: even nature seemed to arm herself against them. Furious storms, overwhelming rains, and terrible inundations destroyed the labours of the field. Novgorod, with its numerous dependencies, was delivered up to the horrors of famine. The little grain that had been collected was sold at so exorbitant a price, that the nobles, with all their wealth, could scarcely procure a scanty subsistence; and this feeble resource soon failed. The leaves and bark of trees were ground into a kind of bread, which the people devoured with eagerness; while their only animal repast, was the flesh of some unwholesome and voracious beast. The streets were blocked up with putrid corpses, and the number of the living was insufficient to bury the dead.

The years which followed are distinguished in the annals of Russia, by victories over the Tchudes, the Lithuanians, and the Polovtzes. Mstislaf died in the midst of these successes, after a reign of six years.

YAROPOLK II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1132, DIED 1138.

MSTISLAF left several sons; but, according to the usage of Russia, his brother Yaropolk succeeded to the throne. This prince allotted different principalities to his nephews, from the hope that each of them being occupied and tranquil in his own domains, would neither molest his brothers, nor disturb the peace of the country at large: vain hope, which the experience of the past ought to have forbidden him to conceive.

The sovereignty of Novgorod had been almost always united to that of Kief. The new grand-prince, following the example of his predecessors, desired it for a possession, and exchanged Volhynia for it with his nephew; but the same day on which this prince took possession of his new fiefdom, he was driven from it by his uncle Yury, or George. When Yaroslaf was informed of this act of violence, he marched against his brother, and compelled him to restore the state which he had unjustly seized; and at the same time, thought proper to restore to Vsevolod the government which that prince had first posssessed. From these new arrangements, however, arose new disorders, which nearly occupied the whole reign of Yaropolk.

About two years after the accession of this monarch, a war arose between the Russians and the Poles, which was attended with some romantic events.

A Polish senator, whose name was Peter Vlostoviez, repaired, with a few faithful adherents, to the Russian court, and complained of the cruelty of Boleslaus, who, he said, had not only confiscated his estates, but endeavoured to deprive him of life. Yaropolk gave him a cordial welcome, and even admitted him to the bosom of his confidence. The perfidious Pole depicted to him, in lively colours, the hatred which his countrymen cherished to their sovereign, and their readiness to cooperate with strangers for the subversion of his throne. Yaropolk listened with joy to tidings which flattered

his ambition, and informed Vlostoviez of the design which he had formed against Poland. These expressions of mutual fidelity, so false on the one side, and so indiscreet on the other, attached him still more to the artful senator. He made him the partner of all his counsels, and of all his pleasures. But, one day, when they were amusing themselves in a house at some distance from Kief, Vlostoviez, who had employed every precaution to ensure success to his design, caused the Monarch to be arrested, and to be conveyed to Cracovia, where he was thrown into prison; nor did he obtain his deliverance, but at the expense of a great ransom, which the Russian princes paid for him.

He had no sooner obtained his liberty, than he resolved on vengeance. For this purpose, he sent a wily Hungarian to Cracovia, who informed the Polish Monarch that Bela, the King of Hungary, had driven him from his country, for having shewn too strong attachment to the nephew of that prince. Boleslaus receives the villain into his favour, and after some time, entrusts him with the government of Vislitsa and Sandomir; provinces, through which he could easily open Poland to the Russians, who already possessed Gallicia and Volhynia.

Soon after, the King of Poland is summoned to Bamberg, to conclude a peace with the Emperor Lothario. The new governor of Vislitsa, taking advantage of the absence of the prince, spread a report that the Russians were advancing with a formidable force. He pretends to be affrighted with the danger that threatened Poland, and orders the Poles to shut themselves up in strong places. Of these, Vislista appeared to them the most important, because the Nida encloses it with its waters: and there, in great numbers, they sought an asylum, with their treasures. Yaropolk, fully informed of all that passed, attacks the city; its gates are immediately opened to him by its traitorous governor, and he takes possession of its concentrated wealth. Historians relate that he punished the instrument of his vengeance with the most signal tortures.

Boleslaus avenged himself by carrying desolation into the country of Volodimer. The prince of Kief

made no attempt at resistance, and moderated the ardour of the Russian princes, who offered to unite their forces with his own, in order to repel the Poles. He distrusted the fortune of arms, preferring deceit to courage, and the artillery of wiles to open and manly force.

The King of Poland was induced, by the entreaties of the Gallicians and Hungarians, to attempt the reinstatement of Yaroslaf* in the sovereignty of Gallicia; but he again fell into a snare, for both these nations were secretly in the interest of Yaropolk. On approaching the capital, he found that the Hungarians and the Gallicians had come out to meet him. These opened a passage, by forming themselves into two flancs; and when his troops had defiled between them, they returned in one body, and surrounded them. This manœuvre convinced him of his error, and he was exerting all his skill and courage to retrieve it, when he beheld Yaropolk at the head of a powerful army. Encircled by enemies, he still reckoned too much upon his own valour, and upon that of his soldiers, to abandon himself to fear. He divided his army into two battalions; he gave the command of one to Vsebor, Voyevode of Cracovia, placed himself at the head of the other, and fell upon the Russians with all the fury that desperation could inspire. Notwithstanding the disparity of his forces, he would have obtained the victory, if he had been properly supported by Vsebor; but that pussillanimous chief vilely took to flight, with the wing of the army which he commanded. Boleslaus, thus abandoned, was obliged to encounter on all sides an enemy whose courage began to be inflamed by success. He no longer fought for victory, but for an honourable end. Covered with wounds, and entangled with the fall of his horse, which was shot under him, he every moment expected either captivity or death. A common soldier came to his relief, gave him his horse, and exhorted him not to shorten a life so important to his country. The prince forced a passage through the enemy, but was so chagrined with his defeat, which had

* A natural son of Vladimir Monomachus.

sullied the lustre of forty-seven victories, that he soon after died of a broken heart.

The remainder of the reign of Yaropolk was principally occupied in contests with the other princes of Russia. He died, however, in peace, leaving behind him the character of a wise, affable, and benevolent prince.

VIATCHESLAF.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1138, DIED 1154.

AT the death of Yaropolk, his brother, Viatcheslaf was raised to the throne of Kief, by the unanimous wishes of the nation; but he was scarcely seated in it, when Vsevolod, the eldest son of Oleg, presented himself before the gates of the city, to require his dethronement. The weak Viatcheslaf immediately resigned in favour of the invader; and by his abdication, the chief sovereignty of Russia returned for some time to the eldest branch of the family of Rurik.

VSEVOLOD II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1138, DIED 1146.

NO sooner had this ambitious prince attained the sovereignty of Kief, than he formed the project of depriving the princes of the race of Vladimir of their dominions, and of uniting all Russia under his own power, and that of his brothers.

But his first enterprises were unsuccessful. In one of them, his troops were seized with a panic of terror, and took to flight without having seen their enemy; in another, his negociations were not more advantageous than his arms. Having made proposals which were

not even listened to, he sent his son with an army to enforce them; but his troops were defeated, and he was obliged to conclude a peace with a prince weaker than himself. This was Andrey, the youngest son of Vladimir, whom he wished to rob of Pereïaslavl, the rightful inheritance of that prince.

The people of Novgorod requested Vsevolod to send them his son to reign over them, instead of his brother whom they had expelled from the throne. The grand-prince readily acceded to their request; but they soon after informed him, that they would be governed, neither by his son, nor by his brother, nor by any prince of his race. At this news, Vsevolod gave order for the arrest of their deputies, among whom was their bishop.

The Novgorodians, fearing the result to their citizens who were detained at Kief, offered to accept for their sovereign, Sviatopolk, the son of Mstislaf and brother-in-law of the grand-prince. To this proposal, Vsevolod appeared to yield, and sent for Sviatopolk to Kief; but no sooner had this prince arrived, than instead of being elevated to a crown, he was thrown into chains.

The grand-prince hoped, that by this act of violence he should compel the Novgorodians to submit to his designs; but his expectation was disappointed, and all his future efforts to impose upon them a prince of his own family, failed of success.

The weak Viatcheslaf, after having abdicated the sovereignty of Kief, had retired to Tourof, his first chiefdom. There he was living in peace, when Vsevolod proposed that he should cede this to him also. Viatcheslaf, who feared that an effusion of blood would follow his refusal, yielded to this proposal, and meekly retired to Pereïaslavl, a government which had been vacated by the decease of his youngest brother. Scarcely, however, had he taken possession of his new dominions, when they were invaded by Igor, a son of Oleg, who burnt the hamlets and villages, destroyed the corn, and held the capital in siege for two months. Viatcheslaf was relieved by two of his brothers, but fearing a repetition of such attacks, he obtained permission of Vsevolod to resume his ancient fiefdom of Tourof.

Vsevolod assisted Vladislaus III. King of Poland, in a war which that prince had undertaken against his brothers; but the combined armies of the two sovereigns were defeated with a terrible slaughter, and Vladislaus was dethroned.

The grand-prince died in 1146. His character was so little beloved, that his subjects were unable to conceal their joy at his decease.

IGOR II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1146, DIED ——.

THE first acts of Igor's reign were highly unpopular. He continued certain odious taxes which he had promised to abolish; and abandoned the administration of affairs to his favourites, who abused their power, and loaded the people with oppressions and wrongs.

The Kievians foresaw the evils that would befal them under so tyrannical a government; they cherished with affection the memory of Monomachus, and entreated his grandson Isiaslaf to deliver them from the yoke under which they groaned.

Isiaslaf immediately acceded to the wishes of the people. Igor, unwilling to quit his throne without a struggle, and being assisted by his brother Sviatoslaf, marched against his rival; but he had scarcely passed without the walls of the city, when the inhabitants, whom he had armed, refused to combat in his defence. This refusal excited distrust among the troops of Igor's brother. Trouble and revolt seized the armies: it was necessary at the same time to suppress the sedition of one, and to animate the courage of the other. In these circumstances, Igor, despairing of success, and fearing to become the prisoner of his rival, took to flight, after having worn for six weeks the title of prince of Kief.

ISIASLAF II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1146, DIED 1154

THE news of the flight of Igor diffused the most lively satisfaction throughout the capital. Isiaslaf, on his entrance, heard nothing but exclamations of joy, saw nothing but marks of attachment and zeal. Having received the congratulations of the citizens, he dispatched his troops in pursuit of the fugitive Igor, who was found in a marsh, and on being brought back to the new Sovereign, was thrown into prison.

The peaceful Viatcheslaf seemed, for the first time, to feel the risings of ambition. Excited and encouraged by his nobles, he took up arms to recover the throne of Kief. He speedily regained the states of which he had been robbed by Vsevolod, seized upon the whole of Volhynia, and placed one of his relations in the government of Volodimer. Successes so rapid seemed to promise him the conquest of Kief, but the time of his reverses had arrived; after having lost all that he had gained, he saw himself deprived of the chiefdom of Tourof, over which the prince of Kief placed one of his sons.

Isiaslaf, though revelling in victory, was the prey of disquietude. The massy chains with which Igor was laden, the numerous guards which watched over him, the deep horrors of his dungeon, and the fortified walls of the monastery in which he was enclosed, were insufficient to bring ease to the mind of the conqueror. He was in constant dread of Sviatoslaf, brother of this unfortunate prince, and despaired of rest, until he should oppress and subdue him.

Sviatoslaf had for his fiefdom Novgorod-Severski: a considerable army, under the command of many princes, invaded it. Not believing himself to be in a state fit for resistance, he sued for peace. It was offered to him on condition that he would promise to abandon his brother, and never attempt to effect his re-

instatement, nor even his deliverance. Justly indignant at these conditions, Sviatoslaf exclaimed, that he would rather die than submit to them; but the most terrible consequences resulted to him from his refusal. After having seen his palace consumed to ashes, his towns delivered a prey to the flames, and his fields ravaged, he was obliged to seek an asylum in the depths of forests.

When Igor learnt in his dungeon, the misfortunes of his brother, and the destruction of all his hopes, he became the prey of a melancholy, which conducted him to the gates of the grave. In this extremity, he asked permission of the prince of Kief to assume the habit of a religious order. Isiaslaf sent a bishop, to invest him with the monkish crown. The unfortunate prince, recovered from his malady, but reduced to the state of a monk, was led from prison, and transferred to a monastery in Kief.

But Sviatoslaf, in the mean time, was retrieving his shattered fortune. Yury, uncle of Isiaslaf, united himself to his interests. With their joint armies, they captured several towns from the grand-prince, and being re-inforced with some troops of the Polovtzes, compelled the prince of Tchernigof to espouse their cause. Isiaslaf, informed of these events, sends orders into different parts of his dominion; and in the mean time, demands succour of men and horses from his brother Vladimir, whom he had entrusted in his absence with the administration of Kief.

The inhabitants of Kief were filled with indignation against the enemies of their prince, and in the moment of ardour, one of them exclaimed, that it would be vain to fight for their sovereign so long as Igor was suffered to live. At these words, the ancient hatred of the people is re-kindled and rises into fury: they all repeat, with one voice, that Igor shall perish. In vain the metropolitan exerts all his influence with the people; in vain Vladimir and the most respectable citizens throw themselves iuto their midst, and endeavour to restrain them by the earnestness of persuasion, and by the force of authority; in vain even the deputies of Isiaslaf threaten them with the anger of their sovereign: they

are deaf to every thing but the voice of their passions, unmoved by every thing but their determination to effect the death of the prince. They speed to the monastery, where the unfortunate Igor, fallen from his throne, was spending his days in penitence, in peace, and in obscurity, and where his present humiliation should have made them forget his former pride, and his ancient excess. Vladimir mounts his horse, and hastens to the spot, to prevent the accomplishment of the crime. The concourse of the people which fills the streets arrests his progress, he is forced to take another road, he loses time, and the murderers arrive before him. Igor was at the altar of prayer; they seize him by the hair, and drag him to the portals of the church. At this moment, Vladimir arrives, he hears the cries of the unfortunate prince, he sees him rolled in the dust, and smarting beneath the blows of the infuriate mob. Struck with horror at the scene, he forgets his own danger, drives away the people made unresisting by astonishment, and covers Igor with his mantle. He struggles alone against the contenders for their victim. The rage of the people is increased by resistance. In prolonging the contest, Igor is dragged to the palace of the mother of the reigning prince. There the prince Michel offers himself as a new protector to the unfortunate prince. Uniting with Vladimir, he pushes Igor into the court of the palace. The assassins, seeing themselves deprived of their victim, fall upon his defenders. Vladimir escapes from them; but they surround and even strike Michel, who snatches himself from their hands, throws himself into the palace, and closes the gates. The populace having broken them, see Igor upon the threshold; they seize him, drag him forth, and murder him. Their fury is not appeased even by his death; but having committed a thousand outrages upon his corpse, they throw it into a common marsh.

Vladimir himself took up the body of the slaughtered prince, and caused it to be interred on the following day. The people assisted at the funeral rites, and being afflicted with remorse for their conduct, shed torrents of tears. Isiaslaf was the more afflicted at this mournful event, as it might draw upon him the irreconcilable

hatred of the princes of the family of Igor, and thus provoke interminable wars. With a view, therefore, to gain over the brother of the deceased monarch, he gave him his niece in marriage; but this alliance did not cause Sviatoslaf to forget either a brother whom he had tenderly loved, or the sufferings which he himself had endured.

Isiaslaf now carried on war against the prince of Souzdal, and having collected an immense army, invaded his dominions. This expedition was at first successful, but in consequence of the severity of the season, it failed of its object, and terminated in disgrace.

Yury,* having formed an alliance with the two Sviatoslafs,† and with the Polovtzes, invaded in return the territories of the prince of Kief.

Isiaslaf was persuaded to sue for peace; but rejecting this advice, he marched against the enemy, and was first in the attack. After a short, but bloody battle, his troops were defeated, and he was compelled to seek safety in flight. He re-entered Kief, not to exercise the supreme power, but to collect his treasures and family, and to remove them to Vladimir, a principality which he had granted to one of his brothers.

YURY, or GEORGE I.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1149, DETHRONED 1150.

ISIASLAF, though dethroned, did not abandon himself to despair. He soon obtained succours from Hungary and Poland, and marched, with a considerable army, against the usurper; but his troops, through fear, turned their backs upon the enemy, and he was obliged to follow them in their inglorious flight. He was pursued to Lutchesk, the city in which his brother Vladimir then resided; and being there attacked, he sent out a body of his soldiers to encounter the enemy. Andrey,

* The prince of Souzdal.
† The brother of Igor, and the son of Vsevolod.

the son of Yury, rushes upon this troop, accompanied by only two men, one of whom immediately perishes at his side. He pierces with his lance all who resist him, and presses forwards until he reaches even the vicinity of the walls. The enemy now perceives that a single individual has put them to flight. Ashamed of their terror, they return, and endeavour to wreak their vengeance on the valorous youth. His horse is wounded with two arrows, and himself appears ready to receive the mortal blow. But rallying all his force, he cuts a way through opposing ranks, and regains his army. His horse immediately stops, and expires, and he causes him to be buried on the banks of the Stir, wishing to testify, even to a brute animal, the gratitude which his services had deserved.

The city of Lutchesk was about to surrender, when Isiaslaf sent a request for peace; it was granted to him at the intercession of Andrey, who was as generous as he was brave.

Isiaslaf always reckoned upon the attachment of his ancient subjects, and never lost the hope of regaining his former government. Having ascertained, by means of spies, that a considerable party in Kief was ready to rise in his favour, he procured an army of Hungarians, and advanced upon the city by forced marches. Yury, at ease in his capital, had no idea that his rival was in a state to attack him, until Boris, who had fled from Bielgorod, announced his approach. Having no time to collect an army for his defence, he fled with precipitation, and abandoned considerable wealth to the conqueror.

The retired sovereign received a cordial welcome to his capital, but the restless ambition of Yury, and the incursions of the Polovtzes deprived him of repose, during the brief remainder of his life. He died in 1154, and had the satisfaction of carrying with him to the tomb, the regret and the affection of his subjects.

ROTISLAF.

REIGNED DURING SOME PART OF 1154.

ROTISLAF, brother of Isiaslaf, was now called to the throne. Soon after his accession, he called a council of his nobles, to enable him to determine the conduct he should pursue towards Isiaslaf. The wisest of them declared for peace, and maintained that there existed no reason for its violation; but Rotislaf, notwithstanding, determined on war, and immediately took the field. When, however, he found that he had to encounter superior forces, he repented of his decision, and determined to sacrifice his allies to the attainment of peace. His allies, having obtained information of his perfidy, deserted him, leaving him to his own feeble resources; and he, knowing that these would enable him neither to negociate with honour, nor to combat with success, resigned the government of Kief, and retired to Smolensk.

ISIASLAF III.

REIGNED DURING SOME PART OF 1154.

THE Kievians, abandoned by their sovereign, invited Isiaslaf to reign over them. He entered the city, surprised to find himself master of it; and to satisfy the Polovtzes, delivered over Pereïaslavl to their barbarous plunder.

The prince of Kief had no occasion long to congratulate himself on his unexpected good fortune; for soon after his accession, he was attacked by Yury, to whom he willingly resigned his crown.

JOURY, YOURY, or GEORGE I.

RE-ESTABLISHED 1154, DIED 1157.

YURY had not been long restored to his kingdom when he was called to contend with the Polovtzes. He marched against them in person, but when the two armies met, neither of them appeared eager for combat. Yury knew that if he defeated the Polovtzes, fresh hordes of these barbarians would succeed to the invasion of his country; and the Polovtzes, on their side, had too often experienced the valour of the Russians, to confide in the favourable result of a battle. Yury offered them presents, which they readily accepted; but he had scarcely retired, when they ravaged the suburbs of Pereïaslavl, and thus carried into their country both tribute and plunder.

This prince had purchased the throne of Kief by arduous toil and repeated wars; he possessed it without either rest or enjoyment. He was always occupied in contests, which he carried on to establish his crown, to secure the fealty of the inferior princes of Russia, or to repel the incursions of hostile tribes. While preparing for a war against Novgorod, which had revolted from his son Mstislaf, death arrested him in his career of ambition, and delivered Kief from one of its most worthless and degraded tyrants. The citizens, unable to conceal their joy at his decease, burnt his palace, and massacred the Souzdalians, whom he had employed as the instruments of their oppression.

Yury founded several cities, which he peopled from neighbouring nations, and thus enlarged the resources of Russia. Among these were Vladimir, which soon became, and for a long time remained the capital of the empire, and Moscow, which afterwards succeeded to that honour. The origin of the latter city is thus related by historians.

When the regent Olga was on his march towards Kief, he traversed the country in which the Moskva unites its waters to those of the Jausa and the Neglinna.

of the approaching storm, and implored their assistance against the common and terrible enemy. In the mean time, the Tartars had sent ambassadors to the Russians, with protestations of friendship, hoping to prevent their alliance with the Polovtzes, and by dividing to conquer the two nations. For once, however, the Russians were true to their own interest: they slew the ambassadors, and in concert with the Polovtzes, raised a numerous army to repel the incursions of the Tartars. The contending parties met near the river Kalka, which flows into the sea of Azof, and a furious contest ensued. The Tartars rushed on the combined army with all their characteristic daring and impetuosity. The Russians maintained their ground with intrepidity, but their allies, terrified at the furious onset of the Tartars, suddenly betook themselves to flight. Only a tenth part escaped, of an army which excluding the Polovtzes, is said to have been composed of more than a hundred thousand men. The prince of Kief, who, with his army, occupied an adjacent hill, had a favorable opportunity for falling on the rear of the Tartars, as they were pursuing the Russians, and by that measure might have turned the fortune of the day; but he remained an inactive spectator of the scene, and thought only of throwing up entrenchments for his own defence.

The Tartars, after their victory, entered into Russia, without the least resistance. The people, accustomed to come out from their town before their princes with the cross and images of their saints, had the simplicity to offer the same honours to the Tartars; but these rejected them with disdain, and fell upon the artless multitude, who had no weapons of defence, but their cries and their tears. All the country which the ruthless invaders traversed, was laid waste, all the towns were pillaged, and such was the loss of men which Russia sustained, that the principality of Kief alone, is said to have been deprived of 60,000 of its subjects. The Tartars advanced as far as Novgorod-Serverski, in little Russia, to the north-east of Tchernigof, where they suddenly turned round to the south, and repaired to the camp of Zingis Khan, who was then in Bucharia.

The prince of Vladimir, the first sovereign of Russia, who ought to have set an example of vigorous defence to the inferior princes, did not even deign to place himself at the head of the forces which he had promised for the war; and, adding indolence to his shameful indifference, he did not send them to the field, until the enemy had conquered and retired.

The Russians now perceived, that in the Tartars they had to contend with no ordinary foe. It was therefore to be expected that their princes would have united in some plan of common defence; but, instead of this, they renewed their mutual dissensions, wasted their resources, and prepared the way for that conquest of their country, which not long after occurred.

About thirteen years after the sanguinary battle on the Kalka, Baaty Khan,* at the head of fresh hordes of Tartars, penetrated into Russia. Having first attacked and defeated the Bulgarians, he followed up his victories with insatiate ardour, and spread in every direction the terror of his name. Wherever he came with his barbarian hosts, the whole face of nature was converted into a scène of horror and desolation; towns and villages were destroyed by fire; all the men capable of bearing arms were put to the sword, and the children, women, and old men, carried into captivity. If the inhabitants of the towns to which they approached, offered a compromise, the faithless Tartars pretended to receive their submission, but immediately violated their agreement, and treated those who surrendered to their mercy, with the same severity as those who had offered them resistance. If the inhabitants of open towns and villages came out to meet them, and to welcome them as conquerors and friends; death, torture, or slavery was the reward of their spontaneous submission.

The first state which the barbarians attacked was Riazan, the prince of which applied for succour to the sovereign of Vladimir. He sent a few troops to his assistance, but they either came too late, or their number was too small. The state of Riazan fell, and its

* He was the grandson of Zingis Khan.

fall was succeeded by that of Pereïaslavl, Rostof, Sasdal, and several others. Like a furious torrent, rushing down the mountain's side, and irresistibly bearing away with it all that resists its progress, these eastern hordes rolled their rapid course, carrying in their train, fire and sword, ravages and desolation, torments and death; and sweeping all before them in one common ruin. They now approached to the principality of Vladimir, and no army had been raised to meet them on the frontiers. They advanced without resistance to the capital, which had nothing to expect, but the same cruel treatment which other cities had received. Yury, with unpardonable negligence, was celebrating a marriage feast, when he ought to have been employed in preparing for the reception of the enemy. On leaving the city, he had consigned it, with his wife and two of his sons, to the protection of one of his chieftains, in hope that, as it was naturally strong, it would be able to sustain a long and vigorous siege. But the commander, by his own cowardice, spread irresolution and alarm among the citizens. These, instead of annoying the enemy by frequent sallies, and employing every method of defence which ingenuity could devise and courage execute, ran from one church to another, offering their devotions to their numerous saints, and imploring from them miraculous protection and relief. When they perceived that these celestial advocates were not to be moved by their entreaties, they abandoned themselves to terror and despair; and to ensure to themselves a blissful departure, assumed the habits of monks and nuns. The city, as might be expected, soon fell into the hands of the Tartars. They one morning scaled the walls, and finding none to oppose them, quickly made themselves masters of the place; they laid aside every feeling of humanity, and like beasts of prey, satiated their appetite for blood among the defenceless and wretched inhabitants. The grand-princess, and other ladies of distinction, from fear of the brutality of the conquerors, had taken refuge in the choir of a church, which all the assurances of safety made to them by the Tartars, could not prevail on them to abandon. It was therefore set on fire by the invaders, who feasted

their ears with the shrieks and groans of the women as they sank expiring into the flames.

The tidings of these deplorable events were conveyed to Yury, and roused him to madness and desperation. He assembled his remaining adherents,—marched with this little band against the Tartars,—and attacked them with the fiercest valour. The contest was short, but sanguinary; the Tartars achieved the victory by the superiority of their numbers, and the body of Yury was found among the slain.

The barbarians pursued their conquests, until they arrived within sixty miles of the city of Novgorod, when, as in a former instance, they sudddenly faced about, and evacuated the Russian empire. The cause of this rapid retreat is unknown; but the Russian annalists, with their wonted superstition, ascribe it to a miracle wrought by the archangel Michel.

YAROSLAF II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1239, DIED 1246.

As soon as Yaroslaf, prince of Novgorod, was informed of the retreat of the Tartars, he transferred to his son Alexander the government of Novgorod, and hastened to Vladimir, to take possession of the throne of his deceased brother. He raised the city from its ashes, recalled the scattered inhabitants, and as if the state, which with difficulty he re-established, was become at once too powerful for his sceptre, he divided it among the princes of his blood.

The Tartars, however, had not finally deserted Russia. Baaty sent an army into the south-east of that unfortunate country. Pereïaslavl was captured without effort. Tchernigof, taken after a vigorous defence, was ravaged with fire and sword. The bishop of this city fell into the hands of the conquerors, but they treated him with peculiar courtesy and respect.

Soon after this expedition, Mangu Khan was sent by Baaty to make an attempt against Kief, where Mikhail then reigned. As he had not a sufficient number of troops to take this city by force, he invited Mikhail to surrender, and sent deputies to treat with him. These the prince of Kief caused to be assassinated; and having basely abandoned the city, he took refuge in the court of Hungary. Scarcely had Mikhail entered upon his flight, when Rotislaf seized upon the throne of Kief; but he was almost immediately expelled by a rival, who left the city, and confided both its government and defence to a lieutenant, whose name was Dmitri.

Dmitri valiantly defended the city with which he was entrusted, but was unable to save it from destruction. On the coming up of Baaty himself, Kief fell, as Vladimir had fallen two years before.

The Tartars having made a breach in the walls, mounted vigorously to the assault. The besieged defended themselves at the breach during the whole day, and taking advantage of the night, constructed a wall round the church of St. Sophia. Animated by the new asylum which they had erected, they re-commenced, with additional fury, the combat at the breach. Dmitri, by his talents and his courage, endeavoured to support the declining fortune of his country, but being wounded, was obliged to retire.

The citizens, deprived of their leader, betook themselves to the retreat which they had provided. In the disorder into which fear had plunged them, they pressed in a troop upon the arches of the church, which immediately fell, crushed multitudes to death, and involved part of the new wall in the ruin. Thus the Tartars were made masters of the city, and performed the severest cruelties upon its brave inhabitants.

The conqueror knew how to respect the valour of the defender of Kief, and treated him less as a captive than as a friend. It was at the suggestion of this generous citizen, who wished to free his country from the ferocious Mongols, that Baaty carried his victorious arms into Hungary and Poland.

It is with states as with individuals: once fallen into *misfortune*, they are surrounded with enemies, who are

eager to share the spoil. This Russia experienced, when weakened by the ravages of the Tartarian hordes. The Lithuanians fell upon Smolensk; but as they had the folly to make their incursion at a moment when the Tartars were retiring, they met with a severe repulse. The Danes, assisted by the Swedes and Livonians, invaded Novgorod with a numerous army, and sent ambassadors to the capital, to demand the submission of the citizens. The answer of Alexander was worthy of his courage; and though he could not meet his enemies with equal forces, he advanced against them at the head of the Novgorodians alone.

The two armies met on the left bank of the Neva, near to the place where it pours its waters into the gulf of Finland. Alexander commenced the attack; he plunged into the midst of danger, struck terror, disorder, and death, into the ranks of his enemies, encountered their general in the confusion, and wounded him with his own hand. Six of the principal warriors of Novgorod, by imitating the example of their prince, infused courage into the breasts of the meanest soldiers. One of these fierce combatants penetrated to the royal tent, overturned it, and rent it in pieces; another, with his companions, shattered three vessels; a third, despising all danger, drove back to the fleet all who threw themselves in his way, killed one of the enemy's generals, and embrued his hands in the blood of a Livonian bishop, who ought not to have risked in battle a life dedicated to peace and prayer. The victory of Alexander was complete, and as it was achieved on the shores of the Neva, he received from it the surname of Nevski.

While the Lithuanians and other nations were thus engaged in fruitless expeditions against Novgorod, and Kief was governed by the lieutenants of Baaty, the principality of Vladimir enjoyed peace, and seemed to forget its misfortunes. But its repose was soon to be interrupted. Baaty who, after three years of predatory excursion in Hungary and Poland, had returned to Kaptchak, required Yaroslaf to come to him in the quality of his vassal, and to do him homage at the horde: The grand-prince obeyed the summons, and took with him Constantine, *one of* his sons.

The Khan of Kaptchack, satisfied with the submission of the prince, treated him with the honours due to his rank, recognized him as the principal sovereign of Russia, and sent him back into his estates without the exaction of any tribute. But though Baaty enjoyed sovereign authority over the countries of his dominions, he acknowledged the superiority of Oktai, son and principal heir of Zingis. He therefore required that Yaroslaf should send his son Constantine to the grand horde of the Mongols. His command was obeyed; the young prince presented the homage of his father to Oktai, and returned to his country after an absence of a whole year.

The master of Kaptchak soon perceived with satisfaction, that the inferior Russian princes, in order to free themselves from the dominion of Yaroslaf, were eager to submit to his yoke. Instead of adjusting their quarrels themselves, they repaired to him as their judge, and by strengthening his authority, weakened and rendered contemptible their own.

A short time after, Oktai deceased, and was succeeded by his eldest son Kaïouk. As it was customary for the vassal princes to pay their homage to a new Khan, Yaroslaf was ordered to perform this duty to Kaïouk. He obeyed, but died on his road home, not without suspicion that he had been poisoned at a Tartar feast.

We have seen that the prince of Kief, after having assassinated the envoys of Baaty Khan, had retired into Hungary. Having heard of the retreat of the Tartars, he returned to his capital; but finding it under the dominion of the enemy, he withdrew to Tchernigof. He had scarcely entered this city, when he was informed that no Russian prince dared to take possession of a sovereignty, without first doing homage as a vassal to the Khan. He therefore repaired to the horde; but in consequence of his refusal to perform a Tartar ceremony which he regarded as idolatrous, he was put to torture and death.

SVIATOSLAF III.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1246, DETHRONED 1248.

WHEN news of the death of Yaroslaf was conveyed to Russia, his brother Sviatoslaf, who thought he had a right to succeed him, took possession of the principality of Vladimir. Alexander visited his uncle, not to dispute the throne with him, but to obtain from him a promise that he would preserve to the children of Yaroslaf, the different estates which their father had allotted to them.

Mikhail, the fifth son of Yaroslaf, less just and more ambitious than Alexander, attacked his uncle by surprise, dethroned him, and established himself in his stead.

MIKHAIL I.

BUT scarcely had this usurper ascended the throne, when he received the news of an incursion which the Lithuanians had made into Russia; he marched against them, and is reported to have come off conqueror. His victory, however, is doubtful; while it is certain that he lost his life in the campaign, after a brief reign of a few months.

SVIATOSLAF III.

RE-ESTABLISHED 1248, AGAIN DETHRONED 1249.

SVIATOSLAF regained possession of the throne from which he had been driven by his turbulent nephew, but he was soon called to abandon it a second time, and for ever.

Alexander continued to govern Novgorod: and as he had never submitted to the Tartars, Baaty sent to demand from him a visit of allegiance. The Russian prince, dreading the consequences of a refusal, repaired to the tent of the barbarous chief. His mild but noble countenance, the beauty of his features and the majesty of his stature, made a deep impression upon the sovereign of Kaptchak, who loaded him with caresses, and sent him, with his brother Andrey, to the grand horde.

The Tartars, not content with confirming to him the dominion of the north of Russia, gave him the sovereignty of the south; but as the prince of Kief disputed his right of investment, he obtained possession of it by force. These barbarians hoped, that by exciting war between the two princes, they might enfeeble their resources, and thus reduce them to a still lower state of dependence and vassalage. At the same time, they gave to Andrey the sovereignty of Vladimir, and assisted him with troops to instate himself in his new domain.

ANDREY II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1249, DETHRONED 1252, DIED 1264.

It was by the arms of the Tartars, that Andrey dethroned his uncle Sviatoslaf; but these same Tartars, not long after, deprived him of his crown.

Leon, the son of one Daniel, prince of Kief, had married the daughter of Bela, King of Hungary. In consequence of this alliance, Daniel renounced his connexion with the Greek Church, and embraced the Catholic faith. As the reward of his apostacy, the pope invested him with the title of King of Russia; but as its merited punishment, he drew upon himself the hatred both of the Russians and the Tartars. These regarded the pope as the chief temporal sovereign of Europe, and could not pardon Daniel for having preferred his supremacy to their own. It was probably *to take vengeance* on his treachery that they had trans-

ferred the dominion of the south of Russia to Alexander, to whom it belonged by no natural or rightful claim.

It was precisely in these circumstances, when Daniel was the object of suspicion and hatred to the Tartars, that Andrey, who owed his power to their protection, married the daughter of that prince. Proud of this alliance, he no longer did homage at the horde, and even refused to pay tribute; but he soon paid the price of his imprudence, and fell a victim to the vengeance of the Tartars.

An army of that nation, under the conduct of three princes, invaded the governments of Souzdal and Vladimir. Andrey, surprised, but not discouraged, collected his forces, and took the field; but he was conquered, and retired, with his wife and nobles, into Livonia, where he was treated with distinguished respect. In the sequel, however, he reconciled himself to the victors, and regained possession of the fiefdom of Souzal, which he had governed previously to his elevation to the principality of Vladimir. He made a journey to the horde, and died in 1264.

ALEXANDER I.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1252, DIED 1264.

ALEXANDER, who was at the horde, when his brother was driven from the throne, was made prince of Vladimir by the Tartars. On his return to Russia, he established his residence in his new capital, re-assembled the families whom the fear of the Tartars had dispersed, and raised from their ruins the towns and churches which had been destroyed.

This prince, mindful of the injuries which the Swedes had inflicted upon Russia, and animated by the victory over them which he had achieved on the shores of the Neva, determined to carry his arms into their dominions. Accompanied by the troops of Souzdal, he passed into Novgorod, and put himself at the head of the forces of

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the republic. He plunged, says the Russian chronicle, into forests where the beams of the sun had never penetrated, and where the human voice had never been heard. He forced his way through the country of the Tchudes into Sweden, or more properly into Ingria or Finland, carried even to the shores of the Baltic, terror, and ravage, and death, and returned laden with a rich booty to the country he had left.

About this time, Baaty, the Mongolian Khan, deceased, and was succeeded by Bourgai, the first of the Tartar sovereigns who embraced the Mahometan faith.

Baaty was always content with the tokens of submission which he received from the Russian princes, and with the presents which they willingly sent to him; but Bourgai had no sooner ascended the throne, than he imposed* tribute upon the principalities of Souzdal, Mourom, and Rezan, and placed a principal officer in each of them to superintend its collection, and to watch over the conduct of the people.

Similar officers were immediately dispatched to Novgorod, to pursue the same measures among its inhabitants. Alexander, who well knew the inflexible character of the Novgorodians, trembled for the result, and even condescended to accompany the collectors of tribute, in order to soften their demands. But while the hero of Russia was employed in this humiliating, though benevolent work, his son Vassili headed a number of the citizens, who had determined to reject the Tartar yoke, and filled the city with tumult and alarm. The arrival of Alexander, however, quelled this insurrection, and Vassili, fearing the wrath of his father, took refuge at Pleskof. Thither the grand-prince pursued and routed him; and on returning to Novgorod, inflicted the most cruel tortures upon his adherents. It was now agreed, that the inhabitants should send valuable presents to the Tartars; and to give them the greater importance, the conveyance of them to the Khan, was entrusted to persons of distinguished rank and influence.

But the Tartars were not to be thus appeased. They soon after invaded the country of Novgorod; and the

* The clergy, whom the Tartars appear to have always favoured, were *exempted from this tribute.*

citizens, unable to arrest their progress, sent ambassadors to implore the clemency of the Khan, to supplicate pardon for their first resistance, and to offer him rich presents, as a pledge of their entire submission. We are not informed of the manner in which this embassy was received, but we know that, after a short time, the collectors of Tartar tribute were again sent to Novgorod. They visited Vladimir on their road, and took Alexander with them, to enforce their demands. Arrived at Novgorod, they proceeded to fulfil their commission with rigour. New insurrections were excited, and the most terrible consequences would have ensued, had not Alexander obtained permission of the Tartars for the people to become the assessors of tribute to themselves.

Russia now obtained a short reprieve from her miseries, by means of the dissensions which began to prevail among her savage oppressors.

Kaïouk, the principal Khan of the Tartars, died after a brief reign of one year, and was succeeded by Mangu Khan. At the ceremony of his installation, this prince gave an entertainment, which continued seven days, and at which were eaten 300 horses, 300 bullocks, and 2000 sheep; while spirituous liquors were drunk in the same, or in a greater proportion. Mangu died in 1257, of a contagious fever, which he caught in the vicinity of China, and in the midst of a disastrous campaign.

On the decease of Mangu, there was a contest for the Tartar sovereignty between two of his brothers, which occupied their respective adherents in sanguinary and baleful wars.

But, perhaps, these troubles of the grand horde had a less favourable influence upon Russia, than the revolt of Nogay, the bravest of the Tartar generals. After having subdued, by order of the Khan, the nations which occupied the nothern coast of the Black Sea, he established his own authority over them, and was assisted in his ambitions designs by the Grecian emperor, who gave him his natural daughter in marriage. This new Tartar empire greatly weakened the power of the Khan of Kaptchak, and excited a hope in his vassal princes that they should one day be delivered from his yoke.

The Russians conceiving that the day for their

emancipation had arrived, conspired to massacre their Tartar oppressors who resided among them. The The farmers of the imposts, who had excited peculiar and universal hatred, were made the first objects of vengeance. At the moment agreed upon, most of these tyrants were assassinated; some of them who had exercised a degree of forbearance in their office were exiled; and others embraced Christianity, in order to save their lives. All the confederated towns were in one day delivered from the Tartars.

Many princes were concerned in this conspiracy; but it had been kept secret from Alexander, who justly dreaded its results. He was soon after sent for to the horde, and was commanded to bring with him the forces of Russia. This order increased the trouble which agitated his mind; he thought that his army would be no sooner in the power of the Tartars, then these would avenge upon it the blood of their slaughtered countrymen. Supposing even that his fears were vain, he knew the exhausted state of his country, and foresaw, that if he attempted to conduct his soldiers to the horde, they would be wasted by the fatigue of their marches, and by the malignant influence of unknown climes.

He therefore resolved to set out alone. Having provided for the administration of the state, he repaired to the tent of the Khan, and had the happiness of obtaining all that he asked; but he was denied the privilege of enjoying the benefits which he had procured for his beloved country. He was ill when he took leave of the Tartar sovereign, and after some days' march, was obliged to delay his journey. Feeling his end approach, he took upon him monastic vows, under the name of Alexey. He died in 1264, at the age of 44 years, after having reigned ten at Vladimir. The Russian church has enrolled him in the number of her saints. Peter I. raised a monastery to his honour, near to the place where the prince conquered the Swedes, and caused his relics to be transported thither, attended by various ceremonies, and by several hundred priests. Elizabeth caused a shrine to be raised for the saint, of beaten silver; and an order of knighthood was instituted in his honour, which has been worn even in modern times by princes and kings.

YAROSLAF III.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1264, DIED 1271.

THE Novgorodians had often made incursions into the country of the Tchudes, and into Livonia; but they now resolved to attack these countries in a regular war. A great number of Russian princes shared in this expedition. Their army met that of the Germans near to Revel, and the contest appeared to be disputed with equal valour. The centre of the Russian army rushed several times to the attack with great vigour and fury, but was as often repulsed, and was at length compelled to retreat. The two wings, however, maintained their ground, being daunted neither by the valour of their enemies, nor by the retreat of their friends. Animated by the voice and by the example of their chiefs, they made a final onset with such resistless impetuosity, that the Germans were thrown into disorder and fled, though the centre of their army remained untouched. The Russians pursued their enemies to a considerable distance, but night coming on, these took advantage of the darkness, and effected their escape. Mortified with their defeat, the Germans renewed the war in the following year. They made an incursion into the country of Pleskof, and burnt the suburbs of the city; but when the army of Novgorod advanced againt them, they requested, and thought themselves happy in obtaining, a peace.

When the news of this peace was carried to Novgorod, it excited a general indignation among the inhabitants. Yaroslaf himself was so displeased with it, that he armed the subjects of his principality of Vladimir, and was joined by the Tartars who resided among them as the deputies and representatives of the horde. The Germans no sooner heard that they were about to be attacked by the Tartars, than, trembling at the very name, they entreated a continuation of the peace, upon any terms that Yaroslaf might be pleased to impose.

This prince, proud of the terror with which he had inspired strangers, endeavoured to impair the liberties of

Novgorod; but the brave citizens resisted his ambitious attempts, and even bade him defiance. Unable to enforce his demands, he had recourse to submission. He sent his own son to Novgorod with a suppliant message; he promised to repair the injuries which he had committed against the sacred rights of the people, and to efface the memory of his faults by the equity and benevolence of his future conduct. But his repentance and vows were treated with contempt; and he was ordered to confine himself to his own domains.

Yaroslaf could not brook this merited insult. He withdrew to Vladimir, and having united his own forces with those of the prince of Smolensk, proceeded to the attack of Novgorod; but he found the city in such a state of vigorous defence, that he despaired of its conquest. He then resorted to negociation, but without success. Determined, if possible, to avoid the shame of an entire defeat, he implored the good offices of the metropolitan of Kief. This prelate, whose station gave him great influence with the people, listened to the prayers of the prince, and procured him a gracious reception at Novgorod, where he spent some time in peaceful intercourse with the inhabitants.

Shortly after this reconciliation, Yaroslaf was obliged to repair to the horde with his brother Vassili and many other princes. Mangu Timour, satisfied with receiving their homage, permitted them to return to their estates; but the grand-prince died on the road, after a reign of eight years.

VASSILI, or BASIL I.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1272, DIED 1276.

VASSILI, brother of the late prince, succeeded to the throne of Vladimir; but the citizens of Novgorod refused to acknowledge his sovereignty, and elected Dmitri, the son of Alexander, for their prince.

This election excited the wrath of Basil: he arrested *the merchants* of Novgorod; delivered up the town of

Torjok to the flames; and by devastating the fields, produced all the horrors of famine.

Dmitri prepared to meet his uncle in the field, but perceiving that the Novgorodians, from fear of the Tartars, were anxious to decline the contest, he withdrew to Pereïaslavl, and the grand-prince was elected in his stead.

Basil enjoyed his good fortune but for a short time, and died in the flower of his age.

DMITRI I.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1276, DIED 1294.

THE peace of Dmitri was soon disturbed by the ambitious intrigues of his brother Andrey. This prince, having engaged the Tartar Khan on his side, and through him the inferior princes of Russia, assembled a large army of Tartars and Russians, and marched to Perïaslavl-Zaleskoi, where Dmitri had fortified himself in his entrenchments. Fear and trembling every where announced the approach of the Tartars; pillage and captivity, fire and sword marked their presence; horrible destruction, and profound solitude were the monuments of their passage. Dmitri, perceiving that it would be in vain to resist, fled with some faithful nobles to Novgorod. The Tartars pursued him, occasionally stopping their march, that they might lose no opportunity of plunder and destruction. The rigours of a severe winter aggravated the misfortunes of the people; and the unfortunate beings who, to escape from the sword of the Tartars, plunged themselves into the dark asylum of the forests, perished there, amidst the desolation and death of surrounding nature.

The citizens of Novgorod, who were never proverbial for their attachment to their princes, advanced in arms against Dmitri, and met him on the shores of the Ilmen. He was attended with a small number of persons, and approached his subjects with noble confidence; but they,

as little moved by his courage as his misfortunes, informed him that they would grant him no succour, but merely permit him to pass through their country into a land of strangers. They even pushed their severity so far, as to seize his two daughters and the wives of several of his nobles, declaring they would retain them as securities for his pardon and favour, if he should be permitted to recover his throne. After having thus treated Dmitri, they elected Andrey for their prince.

The grand-prince now conceived the design of opposing Tartars to Tartars. He went to Nogay, explained to him his right to the principality of Vladimir, praised the fidelity which he had always preserved to the Khans, and depicted, in the darkest colours, the conduct of his brother. Nogay welcomed a prince who came to recognize his authority; he furnished him with letters to the Russian princes, and with forces to re-establish himself on his throne. Andrey, alarmed at these proceedings, abandoned Vladimir to Dmitri, who resumed his government, and made peace with his brother.

Andrey, provoked at the cruel conduct of Dmitri towards one of his nobles, prepared to take up arms against him; but in the midst of his preparations, Dmitri came upon him by surprise, and compelled him to purchase peace by the cession of Novgorod.

Andrey, who had made peace only from necessity, obtained new succours from the Tartars, and led them into Russia; but these thought only of loading themselves with booty, and dispersed themselves in all directions. Dmitri, taking advantage of their conduct, and being aided by the forces of Nogay, fell upon them, routed them, and took prisoners a great number of the nobles of his brother.

Several years elapsed without producing any remarkable events in Russia. The two brothers, by whose dissensions it had been embroiled, seemed to have forgotten their mutual hatred: it was not, however, extinguished, but broke out into a new flame. Tokhtagu had been recently elected to the sovereignty of Kaptchak; six Russian princes accompanied Andrey to congratulate him on his accession, and at the same time to acquaint

him with their complaints against Dmitri. The Khan at first appeared determined to preserve peace; but, yielding at last to the pressing solicitations of the princes, he sent a considerable army into Russia, under the command of his brother Dudéne, with an order to place Andrey on the throne of Vladimir.

Informed of the march of the Tartars, Dmitri retired to Pleskof, a town which was comprised in the principality of Novgorod. This was a sufficient reason for the Tartars to attack the republic. Already they were advancing upon it, when the Novgorodians, by costly presents, prevailed upon them to retreat.

Andrey, soon after, ceded Vladimir to Dmitri, and retired to his fiefdom of Gorodetz; but the latter prince had scarcely re-ascended his throne, when death terminated both his misfortunes and his life.

ANDREY III.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1294, DIED 1304.

THE reign of Andrey, which was barren of events, will permit us to direct our attention to Northern Russia. Daniel Romanovitch, prince of Kief, died in 1266, leaving two sons, the eldest of whom, named Leon, succeeded him. This prince had for a short time occupied the throne, when Boleslaus, king of Poland, defeated him in battle, and ravaged his estates. The following year he was engaged in a still more destructive contest with Vassilek, prince of Lithuania, who deprived him of the whole of Volhynia; but he knew how to repair the misfortunes of war, by the perpetration of crime. Abusing the magnanimous credulity of the conqueror, he allured him into a monastery, under pretence of wishing to confer with him on the subject of a peace; but he there caused him to be seized by villains whom he had suborned for the purpose, and cut off his head with his own hand.

Some years after, however, Hermand, the new prince of Lithuania, undertook to revenge the death of Vassilek, and attacked the prince of Kief; but we are ignorant of the success, and even of the duration of this war.

Kief, which still preserved some relics of its ancient grandeur, frequently attracted the arms of the Tartars. This city was weakly defended by its prince, who was generally occupied in wars with Poland and Lithuania, and who preferred his new heritage of Galitch to the ancient domain of his ancestors. He appears to have at length deserted it; for a few years after, we find it governed by a certain Stanislaus, who was not of the family of Leon, and who was styled prince of Lutsk and Kief. This ancient seat of the empire was now reduced to the last extremity of neglect and wretchedness. The metropolitan, Maximius, finding no pledge for his safety in a city constantly exposed to the ravages of the Tartars, and being unable to govern his flock in peace, withdrew to Vladimir. A short time after, the citizens being driven to despair, dispersed, and Kief ceased to be even a portion of the state. In 1320 it was conquered by Guedimin, who had already rendered himself master of Volhynia.

The government of Novgorod was more and more exposed to the incursions of the Swedes, who during the minority of Birger, had built Wyburg as a barrier against Russian invasion.

As soon as Birger had assumed the reins of government, he applied to the Pope for men skilled in the art of building and fortifying towns. He had no sooner received them, than he sent a numerous army to ravage Karelia and Novgorod; and with a view to prevent the Russians from entering the Baltic by the Neva, he caused a town to be built near to the mouth of that river, at the place where it receives the waters of the Okhta. This town, vestiges of which are still to be seen in the vicinity of Petersburgh, was first called Lands-Kroon and afterwards Nienchantz.

The Swedes had no sooner retired, than the citizens of Novgorod determined, if possible, to destroy a town which seemed to aim a formidable blow at their com-

merce. For this important enterprise, they even implored succours from Andrey, who sent them the troops of Vladimir and Souzdal. But against whom were these mighty preparations arrayed? Against twenty unfortunate men, the sad remains of three hundred, whom the Swedes had left at Lands-Kroon to perish by the humidity of the clime. The town was taken, and delivered to the flames.

Andrey wished to deprive his brother Daniel, prince of Moscow, of Pereïaslavl. This wicked enterprise drew upon him the hatred and resistance of the other Russian princes, to oppose whom he applied for succours to the horde; but happily for Russia, which was about to be re-plunged into all the horrors of a civil war, he died on his return to the capital. He was an ambitious and faithless prince, with whom treaties were mere subterfuges for gaining time, and oaths a veil for the concealment of the most nefarious designs. Often unfortunate, without learning wisdom from his sufferings, he was a stranger to repose himself, and the constant violator of the peace of his country.

Daniel, the prince of Moscow, died about a year before him. He was a pacific and generous prince; and his history is short, because he contributed little to the misfortunes of his country.

MIKHAIL II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1304, DIED 1319.

As Andrey left no brother to succeed him, his cousin-german Dmitri laid claim to the throne. His feeble pretensions were disputed by George, prince of Moscow and son of Daniel, who, because his father would have received the heritage of Andrey, if he had survived him, contended that he was entitled to the same rights. But Mikhail, son of Yaroslaf III. the brother and first successor of Alexander Nevski, had the choice and wishes of the nation on his side, and was confirmed in

the supreme authority, by the decision of the Tartar Khan.

The Novgorodians at first refused to submit to Mikhail, but were at length compelled to acknowledge his dominion. Some years after, being free from all apprehension on the side of Russia, they undertook an expedition against the Livonian Knights. According to the custom of the ancient Normans, they embarked in great numbers, coasted the shores of the Baltic Sea, ascended the rivers, made frequent incursions, and ravaged all the country they could traverse, without departing far from their barks. They even captured towns, not to retain them in their possession, but to pillage them, and then deliver them to the flames. They made some prisoners; but in general, they massacred the inhabitants wherever they came. Deputies waited upon them to implore peace, but they refused to grant it, because room was still left to them for plunder; and when they learnt that an army was advancing against them, they re-embarked without waiting for the combat.

Tokhtagu, khan of Kaptchak, died in 1313. and was succeeded by his son Usbek. The grand-prince repaired to the horde, to congratulate the new khan on his accession, and was accompanied by the metropolitan of Russia. Such was the power of this president of the Greek church, that the Tartar chief required from him the same tokens of submission as from sovereigns themselves, and sent him back to his country laden with caresses and gifts. He even honoured him with letters, which confirmed to him all the privileges attached to his office. These are still preserved, and are a monument of the ancient authority and wealth of these pontiffs of the Russian church.

While the grand-prince was enjoying his reception at the horde, Novgorod was visited with all the horrors of famine. The people revolted, and elected for their prince the cruel and perfidious George. Mikhail heard at the same time of the defection of the Novgorodians, and the choice of his rival. He carried his complaints to Usbek, who commanded the usurper to present himself at the horde. This act of justice on the part of the Khan, was the first cause of the ruin of Mikhail.

He received, it is true, an enforcement of Tartar troops, by whose help he compelled the citizens of Novgorod to sue for peace; but his enemy, the prince of Moscow, having passed two years with Usbek, rendered himself so agreeable to the Tartar sovereign, that he obtained his sister in marriage.

Having become brother-in-law to the Khan, George easily procured from him the title of grand-prince, and immediately proceeded to enforce his new claim; but finding that Mikhail was resolved to dispute it with all the forces he could command, he agreed to renounce it, and concluded a peace. This peace, however, was of short duration. Several of the inferior princes having embroiled themselves with Mikhail, and united in a revolt, George thought it a favourable opportunity for renewing his claim. He had already gained the faithless Novgorodians. He convened his troops, and joining himself to the enemies of Mikhail, was supported by an army of Tartars: he ravaged the government of Tver, and besieged its capital, which was the ordinary residence of the grand-prince. But, notwithstanding the numerous forces which he commanded, he was compelled to raise the siege. Pursued by his rival, he was overtaken and defeated; he lost the greatest part of his troops, and saw his consort fall into the hands of the victor.

The Tartars retired in good order to their camp, and, according to the custom of their nation, entrenched themselves behind their chariots. Their general, who was named Kavgadi, capitulated, and obtained an interview with the grand-prince, who treated him with honour and even friendship; but the fierce Tartar could not forgive his conqueror.

George, after his defeat, retired to Novgorod. The inhabitants, who feared that Mikhail would punish their second revolt, endeavoured to repair the misfortunes of the prince of Moscow, and furnished him with an army. He met Mikhail near the shores of the Volga. The two enemies were equally averse to a decisive battle: they exchanged numerous messages, and at length concluded a peace on condition of referring the adjustment of their differences to the horde.

Mikhail sent his son Constantine to the horde, but

George repaired to it in his own person, accompanied by deputies from Novgorod who were devoted to his interests. He knew that his cause would be actively supported by the Tartar general Kavgadi; he artfully persuaded the Khan that Mikhail refused to submit to the Tartars, and, that having amassed immense treasures by defrauding their revenue, he meditated a flight into Germany. Seduced by these calumnies, Usbek caused the son of the grand-prince to be arrested, and decreed that he should be starved to death; but George, who wished to gratify at the same time his hatred and his ambition, suggested to the Tartar sovereign, that when the prince of Vladimir should hear of the death of his son, he would refuse to come to the horde, and seek an asylum in some foreign land. Usbek, guided by this advice, restored the young prince to liberty; sent a messenger to Mikhail, commanding him to hasten his departure; and levied an army destined to march against him, in case of his disobedience to the mandate.

Mikhail, ignorant of the snares which were laid for him, had already arrived at Vladimir, on his way to the horde. He there met the Tartar ambassador, who informed him of the calumnies which had been heaped upon him, and of the dangers with which he was menaced. His friends entreated him, with tears in their eyes, not to venture his life with judges, whose decision against him was already known. His sons eagerly offered to repair as hostages to the horde, and to die in his stead, if his enemies required a sacrifice of blood; but Mikhail, persuaded that nothing but a prompt obedience could propitiate the Khan, resisted the prayers and the tears both of his children and friends, and took his departure. His son Constantine met him at the mouth of the Don, where he also found Tartar officers, appointed to accompany him.

Mikhail having spent six weeks in vain endeavours to gain the favour of the Khan, was brought to trial. Kavgadi, his enemy and the most cruel of his accusers, was of the number of his judges. All the arguments that he adduced in his justification were rejected with contempt, and he was condemned to a violent death.

The execution of the sentence was for a long time

delayed, and the unfortunate Mikhail tasted slowly all the bitterness of death. His arms being laden with heavy chains, and his neck forced into a strong board, so framed as to be made an instrument both of ignominy and torture, he was dragged in the hunting-train of the Khan, and exposed to the merciless scoffs of the whole horde.

At length, the day appointed for the execution of the grand-prince arrived. In conformity to the custom of the Tartars, he was first freed from his chains, and compelled to take a bath; he was then clad in a robe of golden stuff, and served with a delicate and sumptuous repast, of which he refused to partake. He was afterwards allowed to see his son and his servants, and to receive the consolations of religion from his priests. He was, however, always guarded with care, and by night his hands were forced into a machine which entirely prevented their movement.

While he was employed in consoling his son, and in giving him virtuous counsels, a young man pale and trembling announced to him in a voice interrupted by sobs, that George and Kavgadi were on the road: this was the signal for his execution. His murderers entered, and after having beaten him with many and violent blows, they suspended him from a wall by the chain which he wore round his neck; but as the wall was old and feeble, it fell, and the prince had still strength to raise himself from the ground. The assassins then took him by the chain, dragged him for a long time on the ground, constantly beating him, until one of the attendants of George plunged a knife into his side, and terminated his sufferings and his life.

When the death of the prince was announced to George and Kavgadi, they advanced to survey their victim; but the Tartar, darting at George a look of mingled horror and contempt, thus addressed him:—Canst thou, with a tearless eye, behold the naked body of thy brother, extended on the ground and covered with blood? The fierce George, touched by this reproach, threw a mantle over the corpse of Mikhail, and requested permission to have it conveyed into Russia, that it might be honoured with the rites of burial.

GEORGE III.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1320, DEPOSED 1323.

GEORGE, as the reward of his base intrigues, was raised to the first throne of Russia. He abandoned his country to the extortion and caprice of its Tartar protectors; but at the same time, he enabled it to repel its invaders, and by the splendour of his victories, secured to it the enjoyment of peace.

In making peace with Dmitri, son of Mikhail, George had engaged to remit the tribute, which that prince owed to the Tartars. Dmitri having learnt that he had made a reserve of this sum, undertook a journey to the horde, for the purpose of justifying himself, and of impeaching him to the Khan. Usbek gave the young prince a cordial welcome, and presented him with the government of Vladimir.

George, having learnt what had passed at the horde, hastened to thwart the measures of his rival; but while he was travelling without suspicion of danger, Alexander, the brother of the new grand-prince, surprised him on the road, robbed him of his baggage, and compelled him to take refuge at Pleskof. He was not able to present himself to the horde until the following year.

DMITRI II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1323, DIED 1326.

DMITRI, having received letters from the Khan, hastened his return to Russia, being accompanied thither by a Tartar envoy, and by an army capable of putting him in possession of his new sovereignty. The towns offered him no resistance; Novgorod alone remained attached to his rival.

Dmitri heard with vexation that George had set out for the horde; he feared every thing from a mind skilled in the arts of intrigue, and determined to follow him to the court of the Khan. Fired with revenge, and presuming on the favour of Usbek, he there procured his assassination, but was punished in return with the loss of his own life.

ALEXANDER II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1327, DIED 1339.

ALEXANDER had scarcely taken possession of the throne when, according to the Russian chronicles, his life was threatened with a horrid plot. A prince, named Stchelkan, of the family of the Khan, was sent to Tver in quality of ambassador, and was attended by a numerous suite. Alexander treated him with the highest respect, and lodged him in the palace of his father; but he soon after discovered that on the first day of a religious festival, the Tartars had resolved to assassinate him, with his princes and nobles; and that they afterwards intended to murder all the citizens who should offer them resistance, and to place Stchelkan on the throne.

When the conspiracy was announced to the inhabitants of Tver, they resolved to oppose force to force, and artifice to artifice. Alexander secretly distributed arms among them, and commanded them, before the rising of the sun, to commence a massacre of the Tartars. It was the day of Assumption. The Tartars, attacked at all places, at the same time, sprang from their houses, and fought with all the fury of despair. The inhabitants, being much more numerous than their enemies, could not all act together in the streets; a part of them therefore rested, while others were engaged in combat, and took arms in their turn when the former needed repose. Thus the Tartars, exhausted by uninterrupted efforts, had to resist enemies that were always vigorous

and fresh. Weakened by the loss of numbers, they fled to the palace of Mikhail, but no refuge awaited them there. Alexander set fire to the mansion of his father, and Stchelkan with his adherents perished in its ruins. The fury of the citizens knew no bounds; they massacred the Tartar Merchants, and all the unfortunate beings of that nation whom they could discover.

Usbek found several Russian princes willing to be employed as instruments of vengeance. Ivan, son of Daniel and brother of George, being full of hatred to Alexander, requested of the Khan the principality of Vladimir. Usbek readily granted his request, and furnished him with troops under the command of five Tartar princes. Ivan first conducted this army to Moscow, whence the Tartars dispersed themselves over the government of Tver, and desolated every thing with fire and sword. Alexander was compelled to flee to Pleskof, where the citizens welcomed him with affection, and recognized him as their prince.

Ivan now repaired to the horde, where he found Constantine, the son of Mikhail, who, disowning the conduct of his father, was soliciting his heritage from the Khan. Usbek confirmed Ivan in the possession of Vladimir, Moscow, and Novgorod, and gave the government of Tver to Constantine.

IVAN I.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1328, DIED 1341.

THE new sovereign of Vladimir continued to reside at Moscow, which both his father and himself had carefully embellished. This city, being at the same time the residence of the grand-prince and of the metropolitan of the church, rapidly advanced in importance, and was at last generally recognized as the capital of all Russia.

Ivan had promised Usbek that he would find means of destroying Alexander, but failing to accomplish his

promise by warlike assault, he determined to implore against him the arms of the Church. The metropolitan entered into his political views; he pronounced an anathema against Alexander, and against all the inhabitants of Pleskof who favoured his cause.

The citizens, nothwithstanding, renewed their oaths to the excommunicated prince; but he assured them, that he would not be the means of snatching them from the bosom of the church. Having absolved them from their oaths, he retired into Livonia to the Teutonic Knights.

He there conceived the hope of propitiating the Khan, and for this purpose sent his son Phedor to the horde. The young prince was well received, but his father was ordered to visit the Khan, and to plead his cause in his own person. Alexander immediately obeyed. Circumstances were favourable to the prince; the Tartar chief was embarrassed with a Persian war, and is said moreover to have been captivated with the amiable appearance and manners of his guest. Influenced either by policy or sincerity, he appeared satisfied with his submission, and sent him back to the government of Tver.

But the happiness of this prince was of short duration. Having made a favourite of a common German, he provoked the hatred of his nobles, who withdrew to the court of Ivan, and loaded him with reproaches and contempt.

Alexander was soon after summoned to the horde, where he spent a month in painful uncertainty with respect to his fate. At last, he understood that his death was decreed, and that he must submit to it in three days.

The fatal day arrived. Having gained the favour of one of the wives of the Khan, he sent her a message, requesting to be more fully informed of the lot which awaited him. Being still at liberty, he also mounted a horse, and paid a visit to several of his friends; but he every where learnt that his death was decided, and that the hour of its infliction was at hand. He returned to his camp; and soon after, his faithful attendants announced to him with tears that the executioners approached. He immediately went out to meet them, and

beholding them with an intrepid look, presented to them his head, which in a moment they severed from his body. His son Phedor shared the same fate.

Ivan improved the peace that he now enjoyed, by surrounding Moscow with a wall of wood, which supported a rampart of earth and stone. He died at Moscow, after a reign of twenty-two years; and according to the Russian custom, entered into the monastic state, when he felt the hour of his dissolution at hand.

SIMEON THE PROUD.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1341, DIED 1353.

SIMEON, the eldest of Ivan's sons, ascended the throne with the sanction of the Tartar Khan. According to a treaty into which he entered with his brothers, he reserved to himself the whole of the authority, with half of the revenues of the state. He soon after sent officers to Torjok, to collect the revenue, and to command in his name. These were guilty, or at least were accused of certain acts of oppression. The principal citizens carried their complaints to Simeon, and obtained immediate redress. But when the people of Torjok saw the officers, with their wives and children, placed in confinement, they addressed their remonstrances to the grand-prince, charging him with violating their rights before he was chosen their sovereign, and even threatening to prevent his election.

In explanation of these circumstances, it is proper to remark that the town of Torjok was divided into two parties. The nobles, notwithstanding their recent conduct, were opposed to Simeon; while the people, who preferred the oppression of one to that of many tyrants, had welcomed his commisssioners as deliverers and friends. When therefore they beheld these imprisoned by the nobles of Novgorod, who had arrived with the principal men of their state, they became furious; they threw open the prisons, and having freed their protec-

tors, led them about in triumph. The nobles of Novgorod took to flight, and the people, unable to wreak their vengeance on them, deliver up their houses to plunder and destruction.

Simeon could not brook with patience the insult which he had received in the persons of his officers. He marched against the republicans with a numerous army; but they appeased his vengeance, by submitting to receive his governors, and to pay him a tribute.

Pleskof being closely besieged by the Livonians, the citizens applied for help to Olguerd, one of the sons of Guedimir, and offered him the government of their state, on condition that he should embrace the Greek religion. This prince refused to accept their offer himself, but gave them for their sovereign one of his sons, who received baptism, and took the name of Andrey.

We omit all account of the bloody contests which followed between the petty princes of Russia, that we may give some account of a war which Sweden undertook against the republic of Novgorod.

Magnus Smeek, king of Sweden, had long determined to make himself master of Denmark. He had frequently applied to the pope to present him with the investiture of that kingdom, but in vain. He imagined, however, that if he could perform some signal service for the Catholic church, he should obtain the consent of the Pontiff, and receive succours from the princes who were its adherents. With this view, he undertook to unite Novgorod to the Romish see, being persuaded that its example would be followed by the whole of Russia.

Full of this project, Magnus proposed to the archbishop, and to the principal citizens of Novgorod, that they should enter into a conference with the leading Catholic divines, and submit to the church which should be found in possession of the true faith. Surprised at such a proposal, the citizens replied, that they would remain faithful to their alliance with Sweden; but that, being satisfied with the religion of their fathers, they would enter into no theological dispute.

Displeased with this answer, the king of Sweden commanded the Novgorodians to chose between a con-

ference and a war. He received enforcements of German cavalry, and immediately proceeded to form the siege of Orekhovetz. The troops of Novgorod surprised the Swedes, who were occupied in pillage, and slew them in great numbers; but this success did not prevent the capture of the city, in which discord is said to have reigned. Magnus compelled a great number of the inhabitants to embrace the Catholic religion, and made the rest pay a large sum, as the price of their stedfast adherence to the Greek Church.

Being possessors of Orekhovetz, the Swedes could cut off the communication of Novgorod with the Neva, and interrupt, if not destroy its commerce. The grand-prince refusing to take any part in this quarrel, the citizens of the republic applied to the people of Pleskof for relief; but these amused them with fruitless promises, and taking advantage of the occasion, declared their independence.

The Novgorodians, betrayed and abandoned by the inhabitants of Pleskof, amused the avarice of Magnus by magnificent promises, until they were able to obtain succours from the Lithuanians and the Tartars. A battle ensued, in which the Swedes were defeated, and saved themselves with difficulty by crossing the Neva. The Russians regained Orokhovetz, and made an irruption into Finland. Magnus, in order to obtain peace, was obliged to cede to the republic a part of Carelia; and to complete his misfortunes, he was excomunicated by the pope.

Russia enjoyed the sweets of repose, when in 1352 it was attacked by the plague. To this fatal disorder, the grand-prince and his children, with great numbers of the nobles and people, fell victims. He died in the thirty-sixth year of his age, after a reign of twelve years.

IVAN II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1353, DIED 1358.

After the death of Simeon, the throne of Moscow, (*for this city must now* be considered the capital of the

empire) was for some time unoccupied, but it was at length filled by Ivan, the elder brother of the deceased prince. His reign was remarkable only for the intrigues and quarrels of the inferior princes, who, continuing to weaken themselves by interminable disputes, promoted the greatness of the principal sovereign of Russsia. This prince died in the thirty-third year of his age, and the sixteenth of his reign.

DMITRI III.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1358, DEPOSED 1362.

DMITRI, the son of Constantine, and prince of Souzdal, succeeded to the throne, and was confirmed in his sovereignty by the authority of the Khan.

But Ivan II. the last sovereign of Moscow, had left two sons, the elder of whom, though only thirteen years of age, determined to assert his right to his father's crown. With this design, he repaired to the horde, but found the Tartar court so prejudiced in favour of his rival, that he feared to reveal the object of his journey, and returned with haste.

A revolution having soon after occurred at the horde, deputies were sent by the two Dmitri to the new Khan, to urge their respective claims, and to refer them to his decision. The Tartar, guided by the light of nature, adjudged the throne to the son of Ivan.

DMITRI IV.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1362, DIED 1389.

DMITRI had scarcely ascended the chief throne of Russia, when he determined to effect the ruin of the inferior princes. In the second year of his reign, he

deprived Vladimir of the government of Galitch, and united it to his own dominions. Having allured Mikhail, prince of Tver, to Moscow, under pretence of wishing to concert with him a peace, he caused him to be arrested, imprisoned or dispersed his nobles, and took violent possession of a part of his estates. Nor would that prince have obtained his liberty, had not the arrival of several Tartar princes imposed a restraint upon the faithless ambition of Dmitri.

Mikhail immediately withdrew into Lithuania to his father-in-law Olguerd, whom he easily induced to espouse his quarrel. The Lithuanian sovereign having assembled his forces, commenced his march; he desolated the country, even to the environs of Moscow, and compelled Dmitri to restore all the possessions that he had treacherously taken from the prince of Tver.

After a few years, the grand-prince renewed the war with Mikhail, and was aided in its prosecution by almost all the princes of Russia. The prince of Tver was now closely besieged in his capital. Already its suburbs were consumed, and it was surrounded by a new city, which the besiegers raised on the site of the ruins. The Novgorodians soon after arrived, breathing out threatening and slaughter against the citizens who had formerly betrayed and deserted them. The ramparts of the besiegers attained the height of the walls; the fires which they hurled consumed a bridge, threatened the whole city, and destroyed the principal engine which served for the defence of the besieged. Mikhail made many valiant sorties with his troops, but they were insufficient to re-establish his now desperate affairs. Deprived of most of his towns, abandoned by Olguerd, and disappointed of succour from the Tartars, he sought his safety in negociation with the victor. The bishop of Tver, the nobles, and the most respectable citizens presented themselves as suppliants to Dmitri, and submitted themselves to his discretion. Dmitri, softened by the humiliation of his enemy, content with having weakened him, and having no wish to destroy one of the principal cities of the state, consented to a peace, which was mutually sealed by an oath taken upon the cross.

The grand-prince, having refused to pay the usual

tribute to the Tartars, was summoned to a formidable encounter with Mamai, one of their Khans. This chief raised an immense army, composed of numerous auxiliaries as well as his own troops,—passed the Volga,—continued slowly his march,—and stopped at the mouth of the Voronetz, a deep river which empties itself into the Don.

Oleg, prince of Rezan, having on a former occasion greatly suffered from an incursion of the Tartars, sent ambassadors to present his homage to Mamai, to offer him assistance, and to complain of the grand-prince, who had deprived him of the town of Kolomna.

Not content with joining the enemies of his country himself, he wrote to Jagellon, and induced that prince to follow his example. Mamai received at the same time the deputies of the two chiefs; he loaded them with favours, but required that their masters should assist him with all their forces.

Dmitri was supported by almost all the Russian princes, who, excited by the common danger which threatened them, levied numerous forces, and held themselves in readiness to take the field.

Before his entrance on the campaign, Dmitri repaired to the monastery of the Trinity, where he received the Eucharist, and was joined by two monks, who were not more famed for their devotion, than for their military skill.

The grand-prince having received his numerous auxiliaries, crossed the Don at the head of 400,000 men, and by cutting down all the bridges as he passed, deprived them of all hope of safety in flight.

At length the two armies met; a Tartar came forth from the ranks, and offered the Russians a challenge, which was accepted by a monk, whose name was Peresvet. The two champions surveyed one another with a fierce look, advanced to the combat, and slew one another with the first blow. A general battle ensued, and victory inclined to the side of the Tartars. The grand-prince fought with a club, had two horses killed under him, and being wounded himself, escaped with difficulty from the field.

The Russians had to contend even with the elements.

An impetuous wind blew in their faces, and filled their eyes with dust; nor had they room to act, being entangled with the dead or dying bodies of their fellow-soldiers, which were strewed around them. But after four hours of fierce encounter, the wind abated, changed its direction, and became as inconvenient to the Tartars, as it had been to the Russians. These, being influenced by their wonted superstition, believed that heaven had miraculously declared in their favour, and regarded the ordinary inconstancy of the wind as a prodigy wrought for their relief. Certain troops of reserve which sprang from a forest were taken for supernatural aid; and being now determined to become invincible, they became so in fact. The Tartars yielded to their assault, and fought, not for victory, but for life. Mamai took to flight with the remains of his army, but was pursued, and defeated with great slaughter. Detachments of the Russians followed him even to the horde, loaded themselves with booty, and brought back with them a great number of prisoners. Such was the issue of a Tartar invasion, which threatened to be as fatal in its results, as that which had been conducted by Baty one or two centuries before.

But the Russians had purchased their victory at a costly price. Relations sought for relations in vain; and the fate even of the grand-prince was unknown. Some reported that they had seen him defending himself against four Tartars, and beating them in his retreat; others, that they had beheld him marching with difficulty, and weakened with the loss of blood; and others, that he had fallen before their eyes covered with wounds. At length two horsemen found him in a wood to which he had retreated, stretched on the ground, and in appearance at the brink of death. The refreshment, however, which was brought to him renewed his spirits, and none of his wounds was found to be dangerous. When he was sufficiently recovered to review his army, he found it reduced from 400,000 to 40,000 men. This victory, which was gained on the shores of the Don, procured for him the surname of Donski

Mamai, indignant at his defeat, collected the remains of his army, recruited it with new levies, and swore

that he would either conquer or perish. But before he had taken the field, he was informed that Takhtamych, khan of the blue-horde of Tartars, was on the march against him. Compelled to encounter the attack of this new enemy, he was again defeated, and fled in disguise to Kafa, where he was assassinated by his treacherous host.

The Russian princes now took the oath of allegiance to the new Khan; and having formed a treaty of friendship among themselves, they lived in concord and peace. But this calm was of short duration.

Takhtamych caused the Russian merchants, who traded to Kazan, to be murdered; he embarked his troops in their vessels, and sailed up the Volga, with a design to take Moscow by surprise. Dmitri, unprepared for the attack, implored help of the neighbouring princes, which being refused, either through weakness or treachery, he deserted his capital, and shut himself up in the town of Kostroma.

Moscow being thus abandoned by its sovereign, was torn by discordant factions. Even the wife of the grand-prince and the metropolitan were treated with neglect, and when they retired from the city, were exposed to insult and plunder. While the enemy approached, and the inhabitants were so occupied in their quarrels, as not to think of the means of resistance, Ostei, the grand-son of Olguerd, came to the relief of the capital, and made the best arrangement for its defence that the time would allow.

The siege was of short duration. The Tartars having made an unsuccessful assault, despaired of taking the city, and offered proposals of peace, which were gladly accepted. The gates were opened; the princes, followed by the nobles, and a crowd of the people, and preceded by the clergy, who carried the cross, and the images of the saints, marched out with the presents which their invaders demanded as tokens of homage and submission.

They were suffered to defile, without any indication of treachery; but, on an agreed signal, the Tartars fell upon them sword in hand, and committed a great slaughter. The brave Ostei was basely assassinated under the walls which he had come to defend. The

enemy entered the city on all sides, both by the gates and by the walls, and filled it with plunder and desolation. The greater part of the inhabitants perished by fire, by drowning, or by the sword: a small number took to flight, and those to whom the assassins granted life, were carried into captivity, or immured in prison. The city was delivered to the flames, no part of it being suffered to remain, but the ruins of the walls, and the stone edifices with which it had been recently embellished by the grand-prince. The neighbouring towns shared the same fate, and the fields were covered with desolation: the ruthless victors devoted to plunder even the territory of Rizan, whose prince had been their friend and ally.

Under the reign of Dmitri, the republic of Novgorod furnishes few materials for history, except the predatory excursions of its young citizens. These abandoned their families in troops, elected chiefs, embarked on the Volga, made descents upon the Tartars, pillaged, massacred, and paid no respect even to the Russian merchants whom they found in their way.

The grand-prince, provoked by these fierce and lawless exploits, invaded Novgorod with a numerous army, and threatened it with entire destruction. But the execution of this terrible menace being prevented by the mediation of the archbishop of the state, he consented to a peace, on condition that the citizens should furnish him with a contribution of 8,000 roubles, and pay him an annual tribute of increased amount.

Dmitri died in 1389, in the fortieth year of his age, and the twenty-seventh of his reign. His character has been depicted by a contemporary author, who was often admitted into his presence. He knew, says the metropolitan Cyprian, how to soften majesty by condescension; he was impartial in the administration of justice, and delighted to promote the peace and happiness of his subjects. His learning was small; but the rectitude of his disposition, and the kindness of his heart supplied the defects of his knowledge, and entitle him to a place among the most distinguished of Russian sovereigns.

Until the reign of Dmitri, the whole city of Moscow was built of wood; but he caused the Kremlin to be

erected of stone. This fortress, which was constructed on an elevation, was enclosed by a wall flanked with towers, and defended by ditches surmounted with stone.

VASSILI or BASIL II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1389, DIED 1425.

DMITRI was succeeded by Basil, his eldest son. This ambitious prince added Nijni-Novgorod to his domains, and determined to seize on the other inferior principalities of Russia; but he was stopped in his ambitious career by one of the most formidable conquerors that ever desolated the earth.

The famous Tamerlane having defeated Takhtamych, the Tartar Protector, or rather oppressor of Russia, entered that country with 400,000 men, who were less terrible by their number, than by their exploits. The grand-prince having heard of his approach, was willing to meet the storm; he collects his forces, and pitches his camp on the shores of the Okha. His destruction appeared certain, and would have added but few laurels to the crown of the conqueror; but, contrary to all expectation, Tamerlane, instead of pursuing his conquest, retraced his steps.. The Russians believed that he was repelled from Moscow by a terrible dream, and, that they owed this miracle to the Virgin, whose image, painted by St. Luke, they had piously invoked.

Some years after, the successor of Takhtamych, and Vitold, the Prince of Lithuania, and father-in-law to Basil, invaded Moscow with a numerous army. The grand-prince abandoned the city in despair, and returned, with his family to Kostroma; while the inhabitants, seized with terror, abandoned their fortune, to save their lives. The few who remained, defended the city, and succeeded in repelling the attack of the Tartars: but these desolated the surrounding fields, and revelled in the slaughter of the harmless peasants.

The capital of Russia seemed now to tremble on the brink of destruction, when the Tartar invader was recalled to the defence of the horde, and compelled to abandon his prey. But before his departure, he compelled the city to pay him a large contribution; and on his return, desolated the lands of the prince of Tver, whose only offence was his refusal to take up arms against his country.

Vassili, like most of the preceding grand-princes, embroiled himself in the affairs of Novgorod. The Novgorodians refused to submit to the metropolitan, declaring that they would acknowledge no ecclesiastical jurisdiction, except that of their archbishop; but the grand-prince determined to support the rights of the Pontiff whom he had named. After a severe contest, however, they were compelled to submit, and obtained a peace. This happened in 1393. Two years after, Vassili, at the solicitation of Vitold, endeavoured to prevail on the Novgorodians to declare war against the Germans of Livonia; but neither his insinuations nor his promises, could induce them to commit this act of injustice. Irritated by their refusal, he employed emissaries to seduce the inhabitants of the shores of the Dwina from their allegiance to the republic; and by this intrigue, he added largely to his domains.

The Novgorodians having sought restitution in vain, swore to obtain it by force of arms. Victory crowned their efforts. The people of the Don being feebly succoured by Vassili, implored their pardon, and again submitted to their authority and government.

It was during the reign of Basil II. that, according to the chronicles, money was first coined in Russia.

The Russians for ages knew nothing of coins, except as they received them in commerce with strangers, according to their weight. Mention is often made of the Grivne, both in the chronicles and the laws; but this, which is now a piece of money of little value, was then a real pound of gold or silver, of 9½ weight for the principality of Kief, and of 13 ounces for that of Novgorod, as the livre of Russia is at the present time.

The Rouble, which, in our day, is the largest silver *money of Russia*, was then the quarter of an ingot of

the weight of a livre or grivne: it was thus called from the wood *roubis*, to cut.

The Russians, in the absence of money, employed other representative signs. The first was the skins of the martin, twenty of which were accounted of the value of a grivne.

The word *nogata*, which was the name of another representative sign, seems to be derived from *noga*, a foot. It appears to have been a paw of a marten, with a fourth part of the skin.

The vekoche was a kind of squirrel of the value of the fifth part of a nogata.

It is believed that four rezans made a vekoche. This word comes from *rezat*, to cut, or lop. It appears to have been a cut from the quarter of a skin.

Ears, and even half-ears, served for odd pieces of money, and hence the term *poluchko*, half-ear, is still applied to the fourth part of a Russian Kopek.

This kind of money was highly inconvenient, and furnished occasion for frequent disputes. Skins were of different value, according to the relative fineness of their hair, their colour, and the season at which the animal was killed: by passing from hand to hand, they necessarily declined in worth.

The Russians next adopted leather-money, which, as it had no intrinsic value, resembled the paper-money of modern times. Twenty pieces of leather, stamped with a particular mark, passed for one krivne.

This species of money experienced a rapid depreciation, so that in 1409, a grivne of silver was worth 120 grivnes in leather.

The cities of Moscow and Tver were the first to employ a Tartar coin, whinh was named Denga, from the Tartar word *tanga*, which signifies mark or sign. At first, the inscription was wholly in the Tartar language, then in the Tartar language on one side, and in the Russian tongue on the other, and at last, in the Russian language alone.

The extensive commerce of Novgorod with the Hanseatic towns brought to it, at the beginning of the 15th century, a large quantity of the monies of Poland and Germany; but in 1420 it had the resolution to coin

its own money, which represented a prince seated upon a throne.

Vassili died in 1425, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, after a reign of thirty-six years During his reign, Kazan was taken from the Tartars; Russia was thrice visited with the horrors of the plague, and more than once with those of famine; and Novgorod was shaken with an earthquake, after the greater part of its buildings had been consumed by various fires.

VASSILI or BASIL III.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1425, DIED 1462.

THE succession of Basil III. to the throne of his father was opposed by his uncle George, who was prince of Galitch; and it was agreed to refer the dispute to the decision of the Khan. Both therefore repaired to the horde, and endeavoured, by all the arts of intrigue and entreaty, to establish their respective claims. But Basil, either by his superior address, or by the value of his presents, gained the favour of the Tartar chief, who, not content with awarding him the throne, admitted him into his friendship, and exempted him from all tribute. George retired in grief and disgust to his fiefdom of Galitch.

The prince of Galitch being excited and assisted by one Ivan Dmitriévitch, a man af lofty ambition, and distinguished talents, who had deserted the service of Basil, made war upon his nephew. Basil put himself at the head of his troops, and met the enemy, who were at the distance of only five leagues; but he was defeated, and fled in haste to Kostroma. Thither his uncle pursued him, and took him captive, but treated him with honour, and gave him the government of Kolomna.

Vassili, though conquered, was more formidable than George, for he was more beloved. The place of his exile became the chief court of Russia: all the nobility *of Moscow* withdrew to Kolomna. Even the sons of

George, having slain one of his favourites in revenge, deserted to his rival. Thus abandoned by courtiers and children, the grand-prince grew weary of the throne; and, having restored it to his nephew, he retired to Galitch.

Vassili had no sooner re-established himself on the throne, than he basely invaded his uncle's domain; but he was defeated near Rostof, and compelled to flee to Novgorod, while his mother and his wife, having fallen into the hands of the enraged victor, were sent into exile.

The dethroned prince now repaired to the horde, to implore succour from the Tartars; and while on the road, he was informed of his uncle's decease. George left three sons: the eldest, who was his successor, was named Basil, and to distinguish him from the grand-prince, we shall denominate him Basil-Kosoi. The two others, who were named Dmitri-Chemiaka, and Dmitri-Krasnoi, and whom we shall call by their surnames, had been sent in pursuit of the unfortunate Basil. They were at Vladimir, when they heard of the death of their father, and of their brother's accession to the throne of Moscow. Jealous of the power of Kosoi, they went over to the party of the dethroned prince, enabled him to regain his crown, and from his zealous persecutors, became his most devoted adherents. After various reverses, Kosoi at length obtained a fiefdom and peace; but the following year he again took up arms, and being defeated, was taken captive by Vassili, and deprived of his sight.

Ulu Mahmet, the khan to whom Vassili owed his crown, was attacked by another Tartar Chief, whose forces he was unable to resist. He therefore passed the Volga, and requested permission of the grand-prince to enter into Russia, until he should be able to collect a sufficient number of troops for his defence. Vassili listened to his request, and assigned him the canton of Bielef for a temporary abode.

But the grand-prince soon after violated every principle of justice and gratitude, by sending an army of 40,000 men to the conquest of Mahmet, the number of whose forces was yet small. The Tartar chief, concious of his weakness, employed the most humble entreaties

to avert the attack, and even offered his son as hostage; but his entreaties were rejected, and his offers treated with contempt. Reduced to despair, he shut himself up with his troops in a town of ice, which he had constructed for winter quarters.* The Russians attacked the Tartars with contempt, aud were astonished at their resistance. Mahmet, animated by his first success, was not content with repelling the enemy from the walls of his fortress, but became assailant in his turn, and was surprised to find his efforts crowned with victory.

The Tartar chief, flushed with conquest, repassed the Volga, raised Kazan from its ruins, and founded a government, which it cost Russia torrents of blood to destroy.

In 1445, the sons of Mahmet invaded Mouro, and filled it with slaughter and desolation. Vassili met the enemy in battle, but was defeated; and having performed prodigies of valour, was led captive to the Khan. Mahmet forgave his ingratitude, treated him as his friend, and sent him back to his country, being content to require from him the payment of a ransom which should be proportioned to his means.

Chemiaka, during the absence of the grand-prince at the horde, had formed a numerous and powerful party in Moscow, that was pledged to raise him to the throne. As a great number of Tartars had accompanied Basil in his return, he caused a report to be spread that the prince had sold his nation to the Tartars; that he had engaged to cede to Mahmet the principality of Moscow, and a great part of Russia, and to content himself with the principality of Tver. Thus the traitor found means of gaining the chief of that government to his side.

Vassili, induced by the persuasions of one Ivan, prince of Mojask, who was in the interest of Chemiaka, stopped at the monastery of the Trinity to give thanks for his deliverance at the horde. While engaged at his devotions, he received news of the danger which threatened him, but treated it with contempt, until it was too late for him to attempt an escape. He now determined

* *The* Tartars of the North often erected citadels of this description.

to resign himself to his fate. Ivan, who had returned to Chemiaka, arrived with a troop of soldiers at the church, and conducted him to Moscow, where, with the barbarous cruelty of the times, he was deprived of his sight.

A few years after, however, Vassili was restored to the throne, and spent the remainder of his life in peace. He died in 1462, after a reign of thirty-seven years.

IVAN III.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1462, DIED 1505

IVAN III. was scarcely twenty-three years of age, when he ascended the throne. Looking around him, he beheld, in the circumstances of the times, the foundations of his future greatness. He knew that his talents and valour would enable him to unite the Russian states under one government; he considered the different Tartar hordes in their present divided condition, as the sport of his arms, and the objects of his triumphs.

The kingdom of Kazan, which bordered upon oriental Russia, and made the Tartars masters of the Volga, first excited his ambition, and employed his arms. He succeeded in its conquest, but not until after two campaigns, in both of which the losses which his army sustained were severe.

Ivan next made war upon Novgorod, in order to punish it for a revolt. Three armies, one of which was under his own command, entered the domains of the republic by three different routes. Twice the Novgorodians sent out troops against prince Kholmskoi, who was making his approach from the south and west: twice they were beaten, and compelled to retire. 2,000 of their number was slain, and 2,000 fell into the hands of the victor, who ravaged the shores of the Neva, and pursued his conquest to the frontiers of Sweden. Finding that resistance was vain, the citizens sent an

embassy to implore pardon of Ivan, who granted it on condition that they should furnish a large contribution, pay him an annual revenue, and recognize him as their prince.

Four years after the victory, Ivan paid a visit to Novgorod. The Archbishop and the principal citizens met him at the distance of twenty leagues from the city. His sojourn was honoured with sumptuous feasts, and varied entertainments; and those of the citizens who were unable to receive their sovereign at their tables, brought him presents as marks of their attachment and zeal.

The Novgorodians having engaged in a second revolt, the grand-prince prepared to punish it with severity and effect. He covered the country of the republic with troops, and led them to battle in his own person. The citizens, being unable to meet him in the field, had recourse to negociation and prayers. Ivan, perceiving their weakness and fears, determined that they should submit to the same government as the rest of Russia. He abolished the leading offices of the state; he ordered the clock, which had so often been the signal of revolt, to be removed, and caused a plough-tax to be established; he demanded the cession of different towns and domains; in fine, he left nothing to the inhabitants of their ancient privileges, but the right of not being transported out of the country against their consent, of not being called to judgment at Moscow, and of not serving in the wars against the Tartars.

The grand-prince, having received the oaths of the citizens, returned to Moscow, where he caused the celebrated clock of Novgorod to be suspended in a tower before the Krem'l, and to serve no other use, than to call the people to their prayers.

Thus, by its own follies and dissensions, Novgorod lost the liberty of which it had been so jealous, which it had defended against the attack of so many princes, and which had been the foundation of its power. Reduced to a state of subjection, it daily declined in its possessions, its population, its commerce, its riches, and, in less than a century, was scarcely entitled to the rank of an important town.

About the time of Ivan's first expedition against Novgorod, Achmet, khan of the golden horde, sent deputies to him with an edict sealed with the grand Tartar seal, which required him to pay the same tribute as had been received from his predecessors on the Russian throne. Ivan took the edict, spat upon it, trod it under his feet, and put the deputies to death, with the exception of one of them, whom he sent back to his master, to inform him of the contempt with which his commands had been received.

In the following year, (1472) the khan, provoked by the indignity which he had received from Ivan, invaded Russia; but, when on his arrival on the shores of the Oka, he beheld the formidable army which was prepared to oppose his march, he took to flight, and returned in disgrace to the horde.

Achmet next invaded Russia on the side of Lithuania, expecting to be joined by re-inforcements from the King of Poland. The grand-prince, having obtained intelligence of his new route, collected an army, and met him in the field. Every day some new action was fought, but without deciding the event of the war. Ivan, having been informed that the horde was left without defence, immediately dispatched an army to effect its destruction. The Russians found it composed of old men, children and women. These they slaughter without compassion, and deliver their habitations to the flames; while they carry off the flocks and riches which, in the absence of the army, had been entrusted to their care.

When Achmet heard of the fate of the horde, he hastened to its succour; but while he was advancing against the Russians, and they were returning by a different route, he was met by the Nogay Tartars, who gave him battle, routed his army, and slew him in the field. Thus ended the golden horde, founded by Baty, in 1237.

Being relieved from fear of the Tartars, Ivan made war upon Casimir IV. king of Poland, who, it is said, had suborned a villain to procure his death, by poison. In this war he was successful; and having taken a con-

siderable number of prisoners, compelled them to enter into his service.

These arduous employments of the grand-prince, did not prevent his endeavours to enlarge his dominions. He deprived Mikhail of the government of Tver. He marched a numerous army to Kazan, and having defeated the Tartars in a sanguinary fight, united the city to his domains. All his neighbours experienced the effects of his ambition, and declared themselves his enemies, only to contribute to his glory and aggrandizement. Poverty, which seems to be the best defence of a people against the enterprizes of conquerors, was no security from the attacks of Ivan. In the last years of his life, he wished to impose the yoke of his government upon the nations which inhabit the coasts of the Icy Sea. He sent an army of about 4,000 men to the shores of the Petshora, who in traversing the country, took 33 towns, if groups of savage huts may be supposed to deserve the name.

Worn with toil, and bending beneath a premature old age, Ivan had for some time felt himself decline. He could scarcely walk without the aid of two men, who supported him by the arms. At length, after protracted sufferings, he died in the 67th year of his age, after a reign of 43 years.

As soon as Russia had shaken off a foreign yoke, she attracted the notice of Europe, and Moscow, for the first time, saw ambassadors from the emperor of Germany, from the pope, from the sultan of Constantinople, from the king of Poland, from the republic of Venice, and from the king of Denmark. Ivan signed treaties of alliance and friendship with all these princes.

The grand-princes had always taken for their arms, Saint George on horseback; but Ivan, after his marriage with Sophia, princess of the imperial blood of Constantinople, assumed the black eagle with two heads. After the subjugation of Novgorod, he took the title of grand-prince of Vladimir, of Moscow, of Novgorod, and of all Russia.

VASSILI or BASIL IV.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1505, DIED 1533.

BASIL, at his accession, displayed a laudable anxiety for the preservation of peace. He concluded treaties of friendship with Poland, and with the khan of Crimea; but failed in maintaining a good understanding with the khan of Kazan. He therefore sent his brother Dmitri against this city, with an army which is said to have amounted to 100,000 men. The cavalry repaired to its destination by land; the infantry descended the Volga in barks. This expedition was remarkable for the imprudence, and the successive defeats of the two rival armies. The Russians being surprised by the Tartars, when they were altogether unprepared for an attack, were defeated, and thrown into complete disorder. The Tartars, instead of pursuing their conquest, erected tents on the plain, and celebrated their victory with feasting and drunkenness. The Russians, informed of their imprudence, surprised them in sleep, and slew them in great numbers; those who escaped, fled with haste into the town, and many, in their eagerness to escape, were stifled at the gates. The Russians, in their turn, instead of pressing with the fugitives into the city, or surrounding it with a siege, retreated to plunder the camp of the enemy, and to succeed to their feast. The khan, who watched the scene from the top of a tower, rallied his forces, fell upon the Russians, and massacred them at his will. Scarcely 7000 men were able to save themselves by flight; and many princes and nobles were among the number of the slain.

Sigismond, who had recently ascended the throne of Poland, secretly employed the khan of Crimea to make incursions into Russia. The Ukraine was laid waste; but the Tartars withdrew at the first approach of the Russian troops, and were obliged to sue for peace.

Vassili, indignant at the conduct of Sigismond, made war upon Poland, and laid siege to Smolensk. But after having beaten the enemy who ventured without

the walls of the city, and having taken a great number of their chiefs, he was compelled to raise the siege, and to sound a retreat.

The following year he renewed the siege, and Smolensk being weakened by internal dissension, fell into his hands.

A short time after, the Polish army advanced towards the Dnieper, and gave battle to the Russians on the shores of the Orcha. In this contest, which was fierce and bloody, many of the nobles of Basil lost their liberty or their lives.

It was at this period, that Basil formed an alliance with the emperor Maximilian, who engaged to assist him in his war with Novgorod, their common foe. The German monarch addressed his ally under the title of emperor, and this was all the benefit that the latter derived from the affair.

The war with Poland was protracted for several years; but success was generally declared in favour of the Russians, and Sigismond reaped the fruit which his perfidy deserved. He concluded a treaty of peace with Russia in 1523.

The last years of Basil are remarkable only for two expeditions agiust Kazan, in the latter of which his arms were victorious. He died on the 4th of December, 1533.

IVAN IV.—First Tzar.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1533, DIED 1584.

After twelve years of minority, during which the government of Russia was the seat of cabal and intrigue, Ivan was solemnly crowned by the Russian pontiff, and took, at the same time, the title of Tzar, which no sovereign of Russia had hitherto borne. It was, perhaps, with a view to support this title, that he took the crown, which was believed to have belonged to Monomachus, emperor of Constantinople. The first Ivan Vassilie-

vitch, to confirm the throne to his grandson Dmitri, had caused that young prince to be crowned, which is the first time that the chronicles speak of the ceremony of coronation; for the ancient sovereigns were content with the title of grand-prince.

Ivan, at the time of his coronation, married Anastasia, daughter of Roman Yuryvitch. This princess, amiable, mild, and yet vivacious, acquired a happy ascendancy over the mind of her husband: she taught him to employ his natural energy in useful pursuits, inspired him with a distaste for his former follies, and surrounded him with wise and faithful counsellors, instead of the companions of his brutal pleasures. His equity procured for him the reverence of his subjects, while his affability and condescension attracted their love. He was equally accessible to the rich and the poor. Talents and virtues were no longer buried in obscurity, but were invited to the palace, and surrounded the throne. Dignities were conferred according to merit, and flatterers retired from a court, where they could obtain neither employment nor esteem.

According to an Asiatic custom, which is still observed in the towns of Russia, all the shops of Moscow were erected within the same enclosure. Soon after the marriage of the Tzar, a fire broke out in this quarter of the city, which consumed its buildings with all the merchandize which they contained. Another fire followed, which reduced the palace of the sovereign, and almost the whole of the city, to ashes. Nearly 2,000 men perished in the flames; and all the citizens had to bewail the loss of relations, or fortune, or friends.

Ivan soon perceived, that, until the Tartar dominion should be annihilated, neither the peace nor the prosperity of his kingdom could be secured. But to attain this object, it was necessary that he should have soldiers better armed and better disciplined, than any that Russia had yet furnished. This country had in fact never possessed regular troops. The principal nobles, under the name of Voyevodes, performed the office of generals, or else they filled the rank of colonels, under the denomination of Golovy, or chiefs. The rest performed their service as common soldiers. The more wealthy were fed and

clothed at their own expence; the others received wages and rations for their hire. The possessors of estates were followed to the field by their vassals, badly clothed, badly armed, and strangers to all discipline. Each noble was obliged to furnish a number both of foot and horse soldiers, proportioned to his fortune in land. The farmers, the inhabitants of towns, and especially the merchants never performed military service, but in cases of extremity; and on these occasions, even the church sometimes provided both horses and men.*

The governor of every town is said to have levied the troops which it was required to furnish. These were composed of men who practised different professions and trades, and who were unable to remain long in the field. They assembled in haste, armed themselves according to their own ability and will, and were entire strangers to the military art. Soldiers of this description in France were denominated common troops, and were so little esteemed, as to be scarcely taken into the account of the army to which they belonged.

Ivan determined to remedy these military defects. With this view, he established, in 1545, the militia of the Strelitzes, subjected them to military discipline, and armed them with musquets instead of bows. A part of this new body of soldiery was attached to the guard of the prince; the remainder served in the armies as occasion required.

Among the most memorable of Ivan's first warlike exploits were the siege and capture of Kazan. This city is built upon a mountain, whose foot is washed by the river Kazanka, and is surrounded with a vast plain, on which the Tzar drew out his troops, and raised his entrenchments.

The Khan, who had shut himself up in the city with 30,000 chosen troops, placed half of his Tartar auxiliaries in a neighbouring wood. He commanded them, when they should see a large standard waved on the highest tower of Kazan, to sally forth, and fall upon the Russians in the rear; while at the same moment, he

* It is almost unnecessary to remind the reader, that this is merely a specimen of the feudal system of warfare which for ages prevailed through *all the nations of* Europe.

was to attack them in the front. This order was executed with the utmost precision. The Russians, terrified at a double assault, were driven from their entrenchments, and abandoned their artillery; but being rallied by the nobles of Mourom, they returned to the fight, and changed the fortune of the day. The Kazanese were now defeated in their turn, and having suffered a great slaughter, fled into the town.

The city, through the continuance of the siege, was exposed to the most dreadful sufferings. Provisions began to fail; and the inhabitants, already weakened by fatigue, were called to struggle with an epidemic disease. The Russians, on the contrary, were revelling in plenty; for such was the number of the flocks which they obtained, that an ox was sold for a few kopeks in their camp.

The Tzar, in conducting the siege, shunned neither danger nor fatigue. He often made the circuit of the city, examining the effect of the artillery and warlike engines, and watching the progress of the ramparts, which he had ordered to be raised to the height of the walls. Upon a tower which surmounted the ramparts, he caused ten large cannons to be placed, which incessantly played upon the city; while from the top of this tower, the strelitzes fired with musquets upon the inhabitants, who could find safety neither in their houses, nor in the streets.

All the Russian preparations for attack were at length finished, and the day which Ivan had marked for the destruction of the city arrived. A mine which he had caused to be dug under the walls was sprung; a part of them fell with a tremendous crash, and the air thundered with the violence of the explosion.

The besieged Tartars defended themselves with the utmost valour. They maintained a constant fire of musquetry and cannon; and when their enemies drew near, they poured upon them boiling liquors, or annoyed them with showers of stones. The Russians having forced an entrance at the breach, the battle raged from street to street, and from house to house. The carnage was so great, that it extended from the place of assault to the opposite gates, and thence into a neighbouring

forest, where the conquered inhabitants, in great numbers, sought refuge; but it was the most severe at the palace of the khans, where the bodies of the slain were laid in heaps.

The besieged, deprived of all hope, and obliged to abandon all they held dear to the mercy of the conqueror, left their wives and children in the palace, to the number of 10,000, and clad in their richest attire. The Russians entered full of slaughter and revenge, but when they beheld the defenceless crowd adorned like so many victims for the altar, they were moved with compassion, and spared their lives. They songht in vain for the Khan through all the rooms of the palace, but afterwards found him in a remote corner of the city, and bound him with chains.

The ruin of the Tartar government at Kazan delivered Russia from a formidable enemy, and abased the power of the nobles, by augmenting that of the Tzar. He is reported to have said to them on the morrow of the victory: "God has at length fortified me against you."

The news of the capture of Kazan was speedily conveyed to Astrachan, and filled the city with terror and alarm. The Khan Abdal, who was then its sovereign, sent ambassadors to Ivan, and quietly submitted to the Russian yoke.

Emurguey, the successor of Abdal, having slain some Russian deputies that had been sent to his court, was attacked by Ivan, defeated, and compelled to flee into Siberia. The Tzar appointed Derbick Alei, a Tartar prince, khan in his stead.

The khan of Crimea, who had quietly suffered the Russians to effect the ruin of Kazan and Astrachan, had now the temerity to attack them with an army of 60,000 men; but he also was defeated, after a battle which continued two days.

The next enemy that the Russians had occasion to combat, was the Swedes. Gustavus Vasa, in violation of a peace which he had ratified with the Tzar, sent an army to the siege of Orchek, but after the city had been invested twenty days, the forces of Ivan appeared for its relief, and the siege was raised. Prince Paletskoi, who commanded the Russians, advanced into Finland,

and meeting with no resistance, ravaged the country at his will. At length, having arrived at Vyburg, he beheld an army of Swedes drawn up to oppose his march. An action commenced, and a complete victory was obtained by the forces of the Tzar. Gustavus, defeated by the Russians, and abandoned by his allies, was obliged to sue for peace; and it was granted him for forty years.

Ivan, still inflamed by ambition, made war upon the Livonians. Having collected a numerous army, which included Cossacks and Tartars, he opened the campaign in person, and shared all the privations and fatigues of the meanest soldier in the ranks. During a whole month, he ravaged the districts of Dorpat and Riga, sparing neither sex nor age, and returned to Moscow enriched with spoil. The prisoners he had taken he sold to the Tartars for slaves.

Soon after these brilliant successes, a suspension of arms was agreed upon between the contending parties; but, in consequence of a fresh subject of dispute, the war was renewed, and the arms of the Russians were again victorious. They wrested Narva and Dorpat from the Livonians, and in the course of a year, made themselves masters of thirty fortified towns.

The Khan of Crimea, supposing that Ivan was absent from his capital, and busied in the Livonian war, determined to make an incursion into Russia; but when he arrived at the frontiers, he learnt that the Tzar was at Moscow, and that the whole army, after having achieved a series of splendid conquests, had returned into Russia. At this news, the Tartar retraced his steps to the horde; the severity of the winter wasted his army, and his losses were aggravated by the attacks of the Russians, who hung, in great numbers, upon his rear.

As the Tzar had commanded his best generals to resist this invasion, he could send none but inferior chiefs to the war of Livonia, and these suffered themselves to be defeated by inferior numbers. But he soon repaired these misfortunes, and even succeeded in the capture of Felling, a city of great importance, and capable of a vigorous defence.

Ivan now turned his arms against Sigismund, king

of Poland, who had succeeded to the rights of the grand-master of Livonia, and who is said to have refused to give him his daughter in marriage. The Russians entered into Lithuania, and, after having taken many strong places, undertook the siege of Polotsk, a town which, in former ages, had been united to Russia. The Tzar placed himself at the head of his troops, and Sigismund, though he harassed him in his march, was unable to arrest his progress. The town was taken by assault; the conquerors loaded themselves with booty, and massacred all the monks and Jews whom they found within its walls.

The following campaign of the Russians was not so uniform in its success. One of their armies was beaten, and another made an inglorious retreat. They laid the blame of these misfortunes on the foreign commanders who had been received into the favour of their prince: for the Tzar, perceiving the deficiencies of his subjects, had invited men from different parts of Europe who were fitted to instruct and polish them; to form them to the art of war, and to conduct them to the field. The boyards, incapable of discerning the superiority of these strangers, had all the pride of ignorance, and the mean jealousy which it never fails to inspire. To avenge themselves, they formed a variety of plots; but their intrigues were discovered and severely punished. Those of them who could escape, retired into Poland, and took up arms against their country.

The natural severity of the Tzar was inflamed by these events; and as it was no longer tempered by the mild ascendancy of his first wife, it discovered itself in the most appalling forms.

In 1563, this prince declared in a numerous assembly, that, weary of society and of the cares of state, he had determined to resign his crown, and spend the remainder of his life in retirement and devotion. As his sons were yet very young, he entrusted the supreme government to Yediguer, the last Khan of Kazan, and who had been baptized under the name of Semen. He even transferred to this prince the title of Tzar, being content to reserve to himself the designation of grand-prince. He promised to give him his advice in difficult and

important affairs; but Semen, and all the members of the council, well knew that this advice would have all the force of a command, and that he who should dare to reject it, would incur the certain penalty of death.

He caused to be erected, for his retreat, a vast mansion, or rather a small town, fortified with towers and a stone wall, and gave it the name of Alexandro va Sloboda. Here he was surrounded by a number of base minions, who pandered both to his cruelty and his pleasures. Ready to execute, and even to anticipate, his terrible commands, they traversed all parts of the empire, and their presence was as the messengers of death. To gratify his suspicious temper, they accused his most faithful subjects of traitorous designs; and, having procured the confiscation of their goods, they shared them as their spoil. By this means, some of the most illustrious houses in the empire were destroyed, and the family of the Tzar himself was reduced to the verge of extinction.

Ivan soon after resumed the reins of government, and having received intelligence that certain citizens of Novgorod had entered into a traitorous correspondence with the king of Poland, he determined to effect the ruin of that ancient capital of the empire. He dispatched a troop of fierce soldiery before him, with orders to lie in ambush on the road, and to massacre all travellers. Thus all communication being interrupted between Novgorod and Moscow; the Novgorodians had no suspicion of the danger which menaced them, and were unable to prepare for their defence. After a few days, the Tzar commenced his route, preceded by a body of Tartars, with some infantry, who burnt all the towns and villages through which they passed, and slaughtered the inhabitants without distinction of rank or sex.

Ivan, upon his entrance into Novgorod, proceeded to the church of St. Sophia, that he might witness the celebration of mass, and was met on the road by the archbishop of the city, bearing a cross. As this prelate was supposed to be the abettor of a revolt to Poland, the Tzar regarded him with a stern aspect, and addressed him in these words: "Traitor, it is not the cross which thou bearest in thy hands, it is a weapon which

Russia. They penetrated to Moscow, and set fire to the suburbs. A furious wind drove the flames into the city, a considerable part of which was reduced to ashes; and 100,000 men are said to have perished, either by the fire, or the sword; but at the approach of the Russian army, the Tartars retired.

Immediately after, the Khan sent an embassy to the Tzar, composed of 300 men, to demand of him a tribute.

Ivan, provoked by this insult, caused the principal of them to be deprived of their noses, their lips, and their ears, and, in this mutilated state, to be sent back to their master. He charged them to present him with an axe, and to tell him, that it was the only Russian tribute he would receive.

The Khan, enraged by the cruel treatment of his ambassadors, and the haughty message of the Tzar, invaded Russia with a numerous army; but he was defeated, and compelled to abandon his tents and baggage to the plunder of the victor.

The King of Poland and the Tzar, being equally wearied with a war which they had long carried on with various success, consented to a truce for three years.

Ivan now turned his arms against Sweden; but, after numerous battles and sieges, he was unable to bring the war to a successful termination. At length, the King of Poland having formed an alliance with the Swedish monarch, the Tzar was threatened with destruction. In this exigency of his affairs, Ivan implored the mediation of the pope, beseeching him to repress the ambition of the catholic princes, and to inspire them with sentiments more conformable to the holy religion which they professed.

The popes had embraced every opportunity of maintaining a correspondence with Russia. They had always beheld, with grief, this vast empire detached from the communion of the Catholic church. Gregory, therefore, listened with eagerness to the entreaties of the Tzar, and sent him a nuncio, in the person of Antony Possevin, who was commissioned to negociate a peace between the hostile courts, and to exert all his endeavours for the introduction of the Latin ritual into Russia.

Possevin first repaired to the King of Poland, and

that prince declared to him that he would never consent to a peace, until Ivan should cede to him the whole of Livonia, together with many towns of Russia, and should indemnify him for the expences of the war.

With these proposals the Catholic envoy proceeded to Staritza, where Ivan then held his court. The Tzar gave him a most welcome reception, and having loaded him with attention and honour, sent him back to the King of Sweden with new proposals, which were rejected. After some further negociation, however, a peace was concluded between the two monarchs, which was ratified at the beginning of the year 1582.

About this time, Ivan, the slave of his ungovernable passions, put to death his eldest son, a youth of great promise, and whom he had tenderly loved. The particulars of this tragical event are thus narrated :—

Towards the close of the war with Poland, the boyards repaired to the court of the Tzar, and entreated him to levy a powerful army for the defence of the empire, adding, that if the weakness of age prevented his taking the field, he could entrust the command of the troops to his eldest son. Ivan thought he saw in this proposal the contempt of his subjects for his person, and a conspiracy formed against him in favour of the young prince; he could not repress his indignation, and punished with death the principal authors of this imprudent advice. The Tzarovitch perceiving that he was himself suspected, endeavoured to justify himself to his father and fell at his feet; but Ivan, in a paroxysm of rage, struck him a blow on the head which in four hours occasioned his death.

The Tzar now became a prey to all the bitterness of anguish and remorse. He spent his nights in uttering the most piercing cries, and in rolling himself on the ground. It was with extreme difficulty that he could suffer himself to be conveyed to his bed, where fatigue procured him a few moments of repose. In atonement for his crime he distributed money to all the monasteries of his empire, and even sent considerable sums to the patriarch of Greece. At length, worn with age and grief, this unhappy monarch died on the 19th of March, 1584, and received in his last moments the monastic tonsure.

Ivan, notwithstanding his brutal fierceness and cruelty, was one of the best legislators of his country; and a protector of commerce and the arts.

In the beginning of his reign, he convoked an assembly of the nobles, and after having received their advice and counsel, formed a code of laws which bears the name of Soudebnik. This code was without doubt very imperfect, but it was preferable to the laws which had hitherto existed in the empire.

In 1553, three English vessels sailed from Deptford on a voyage of discovery in the north seas. Having reached the 72nd degree of north latitude, they were dispersed in a storm; one sunk, another running into a harbour of Russian Lapland, the crew were frozen to death; but the third, commanded by Richard Chancellor, anchored at the mouth of the Dwina, where the town of Archangel was afterwards built. The Tzar, informed of this novel event, summoned Chancellor to Moscow, where he was treated with distinguished respect, and dismissed with a letter to his sovereign, assuring the English of every encouragement in establishing a trade with Russia.

Gustavus I. king of Sweden, saw with grief the commencement of a trade between Russia and England. He wrote to the King of Denmark entreating him to stop the navigation of the latter in the Icy Sea, and to excite his fears, assured him that the English supplied the Russians with arms. He even transmitted his complaints to the queen of England, the celebrated Elizabeth. She replied, that her subjects should continue to trade wherever their interest might invite them; but that she would prevent their conveying arms to the Russians.

In 1558, Ivan established a foreign market at Narva, which was soon crowded with Dutch, English, and French merchants. So favourite an emporium did this become, that in consequence of the vast quantity of goods with which it was supplied, articles of clothing were sometimes sold in it for less than their market price in the countries where they were manufactured.

Prejudiced writers have represented Russia, even in the 18th century, as a barren and uncultivated

country; whereas it is proved that from the reign of the Tzar Ivan it exported considerable quantities of corn to Sweden, Denmark, Holland, England, and France.

After the conquest of Kazan and Astrachan, the caravans of Bucharia and of Persia resorted to Moscow, while the Nogay Tartars supplied its markets with numerous steeds.

The frequent revolutions and misfortunes of the Russians could not make them forget two branches of industry which seemed to be peculiarly their own, that of boiling and crystalizing salt, and that of preparing the leather which bears the name of their country, even at the present time.

The working of mines was practised in this reign, but in an imperfect manner, and to a small extent.

All that serves for luxury in clothing, the Russians derived from a foreign mart. They manufactured only a coarse grey cloth, which was worn by the peasants.

Though the Russians had been accustomed to the use of arms, they knew nothing of the art of war. A brutal courage, and untiring patience, were their highest qualities in the field. They could sustain cold, thirst, and hunger, without complaint. A tissue of branches, a few pieces of stuff fastened to stakes, formed their only defence from the rain, the snow, the wind, and the storm. Oat-meal mixed with water and fermented, and a morsel of bread were their only food. Ivan, as we have seen, was the first sovereign who prescribed laws to their courage, and trained them to arms.

The Russians had long languished in ignorance and neglect. Ivan felt this, and was anxious to contribute to their refinement in knowledge and civilization. He invited strangers to Moscow. He obtained workmen and artificers from England, and is said to have been the first sovereign of Russia who had physicians in his court.

Ivan laudably endeavoured to make the sacred scriptures accessible to all his subjects. He undertook an edition of the Acts and the Epistles, which was completed in about a year; and he had the satisfaction of having employed none but Russians in this benevolent work.

The Russians hated all kinds of religion but their own. They had conceived such a horror for the church of Rome, that the greatest curse they could invoke upon the head of an enemy was to wish he might die a disciple and subject of the Pope. Even the Tzar, when he had given his hand to foreign ambassadors, never failed at their departure to wash it in a golden dish, that was kept in the hall of audience.

But this prince knew how to sacrifice his prejudices to the welfare of the state. The Lutheran merchants were permitted to have two churches at Moscow, and when the papal ambassador entreated him to banish the German pastors from the city, he was deaf to his prayer.

The Tzar governed the church with arbitrary rule. According to ancient usage, the metropolitans were confirmed by the patriarchs of Constantinople; but he elevated and dethroned them at his pleasure. He even affected a mixture of the pontifical and imperial dress. A tiara, sparkling with pearls and diamonds, adorned his head. His sceptre, mounted with large crystal globes, resembled the pastoral staff of a Greek prelate. His long robe bore some resemblance to the garb of the pope, when he officiates as a priest. At his right was the image of the Saviour, and over his seat that of the Virgin. On each side were two acolytes, or guards, arrayed in white, and with wings attached to their shoulders.

Ivan had fixed hours for receiving the petitions of his subjects, and never suffered them to wait long for a reply. The ministers and governors who were guilty of injustice and oppression, he punished with death.

The conduct of the Tzar was remarkable for caprice. He often elevated his meanest subjects to the highest offices in the state, while he degraded his nobles by assigning them some menial employ. He gave the command of towns as a reward for the most trivial merit; he took them away as a punishment for the slightest fault.

After the death of the amiable Anastasia, the amusements of the courts, which she had rendered pure and dignified, became low and intemperate. To refuse to

drink as much as others, was accounted an insult to the prince, and was treated as an unpardonable offence. A certain Dmitri Utchinin was often present at the feasts of the court. Having, on one occasion, drunk to intoxication, the Tzar presented him with a goblet of hydromel, and commanded him to drink his health. Utchinin, who was conscious of his excess, drank but half the liquor, and returned the cup. "Behold the good you wish me!" exclaimed the furious Ivan: "it is thus then that you love me!" And, on uttering these words, he caused the unfortunate guest to be conveyed to an obscure dungeon, and slain.

The art of pleasing the Tzar with low buffoonery, was diligently cultivated at court, but not without danger. Gvozdevoi, who excelled in this art, one day ventured to pass a jest that was too cutting and bold for his master's taste. Perceiving the error which he had committed, he prostrated himself at the feet of the Tzar, who receiving, at the same moment, a dish of boiling soup, poured it upon his neck. The unfortunate jester endeavoured to retire; Ivan held him by the robe, and, seizing a knife from the table, struck him a violent blow, and laid him motionless at his feet. He immediately repented of his cruel conduct, and sent for a physician; but when he learnt that all remedies would be vain, he amused himself with cold and brutal jokes.

Sometimes, when the Tzar beheld a crowd of his subjects, he amused himself by sending among them a number of ferocious bears, which tore them to death on every side; and if the relations of the sufferers complained of this cruel sport, he gave them a few pieces of silver, and consoled them with the thought that they had contributed to the pleasures of their sovereign and lord. Often, in his house of pleasure, he caused criminals to be covered with the skins of bears, and to be hunted with English dogs, which had been trained to this cruel chase.

Cheremetef, lord of Rostroma, was summoned to the palace on a charge of high treason, which had been invented by the envy and hatred of his foes. Ivan caused him to be arrayed in the imperial robe, placed the crown upon his head, presented to him the ball

of gold which was the symbol of empire, and seated him upon the throne. Having thus commenced this tragic comedy, he retired with an air of respect, uncovered himself, saluted him in a posture inclining to the ground, and thus addressed him: "Hail, Tzar and grand-prince; thou hast attained the object of thy desire. Thou hast conspired to usurp my place—I give it thee;" "but," added he, raising himself, "as I have power to make thee Tzar, I have power to hurl thee from the throne." At these words, he drew his dagger, and stabbed him in the heart with redoubled blows. The courtiers, joining in the atrocious deed, drew their knives, and filled with brutal incisions, the bleeding corse.

These and other acts of cruelty, which might be narrated, tarnished the great qualities of the Tzar, and cause abhorrence to be mingled with the admiration in which his memory is held.

FEDOR I.

BEGAN TO REIGN, 1584, DIED 1598.

FEDOR ascended the throne at the age of thirty-seven years. He was of a feeble constitution, both in body and mind. Ivan perceiving this, had appointed three boyards to be his council of direction, or rather to reign in his name. These guardians of the state were illustrious both for talents and birth, and were esteemed the greatest generals of their age. The first of them was prince Shuiski, a descendant of Rurik, and of the house of Andrey. The second was Mstishavski, who was of the race of Lithuanian princes. The third was Nikita Romanovitch Yurief, of an ancient and noble family, and who had performed important services for the state. His sister Anastasia was the first wife of the late Tzar; he was therefore uncle to the reigning prince.

Next in consideration to these nobles, was Bogdan Belski, whom Ivan had appointed tutor to Dmitri, his

younger son. He wished to exclude Fedor from the throne, and to place his pupil upon it, that he might reign in his name. For this purpose, he entered into a conspiracy in favour of Dmitri; but, being betrayed by his accomplices, it was discovered, and he fled.

A more dangerous aspirant to the honours of the throne, was Boris Bodunof, whose sister was wife to the Tzar. Through the favour of Fedor, this ambitious noble had acquired immense riches and great authority; both of which he employed in gaining adherents to his cause. By wicked artifice and false accusations, he effected the ruin of the council. Mstislavski was arrested, and compelled to assume the habit of a monk; Shuiski and Yurief, after some little delay, were basely assassinated. Many of the boyards, who were guilty of no other crime than friendship for these illustrious individuals, were torn from their families, and immured in prison.

Delivered from all his enemies, and assured of the support of numerous followers and dependants, Boris beheld only one obstacle to the accomplishment of his designs; it was the young Dmitri. To facilitate the destruction of this prince, and to conceal it from Fedor, he sent him away with his mother to Uglitch, where he shortly after caused him to be murdered, as he was playing with a female attendant in the court-yard of the house where he was confined. This tragical event happened on the 15th of May, 1591. Boris caused a report to be spread that Dmitri had been attacked by a raging fever, and that, deserted by his friends, he had in a fit of delirium committed suicide. The mother of the young prince was sent to a convent, as a punishment for her pretended neglect of her son; while the perpetrator of the murder was put to death, by the orders of him who had instigated him to the horrid deed.

A short time after, the Crimean Tartars invaded Russia, with the Turks, and carried their ravages to the city of Moscow. It was reported that Boris had encouraged this invasion, to divert the attention of the Russians from his crimes; but the report had no foundation in truth. The Tartars required no invitation to plunder; and the following year, they made a still fiercer incursion into the Ukraine.

The feeble health of the Tzar had long indicated that his end was nigh. He died January 17th, 1598, after having less reigned, than lent his name to acts of sovereignty for 14 years. In him ended the dynasty of Rurik, which, during eight centuries, had occupied the throne.

In the reign of Fedor, Jeremiah, the patriarch of Constantinople, visited Moscow, and invested the Russian metropolitan with the same ecclesiastical rank. He was accompanied by a Greek archbishop, who describes, in enraptured terms, the riches of the Russian court. "Imagine," says he, superb side-boards laden with silver cups, decanters, goblets, encircled with garlands of gold, and filled with wines of the most exquisite taste. In the prodigious number of golden vessels of different sizes and forms, one may be seen which twelve men are scarcely able to bear, engraven with all kinds of animals, such as lions and bears." The apartments of the Tzaritza, her dresses, and those of the ladies of the court, he describes as not less novel and rich. The presents which the patriarch and his suite received from the court at their departure, consisted in dishes of gold, enriched with pearls and diamonds.

BORIS GODUNOF.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1598, DIED 1605.

On the decease of Fedor, the nobles and clergy offered the crown to his widow, but she declined its acceptance, and retired to a convent in Moscow, where she took the veil. Boris, to conceal his ambitious designs, followed his sister, pretending that, like her, he had determined to abandon the world. But, he had already prepared many things for his election. The patriarch, who owed to him his elevation, was devoted to his interests; while a large proportion of the people, from gratitude for his benefits, espoused his cause. According to his expectation, therefore, a plurality of voices declared for his elevation to the throne; but he

hypocritically declined the honour, solemnly protesting that he had devoted himself to a monastic life. When the patriarch, however, at the head of the principal nobles, and attended by an immense concourse of the people of Moscow, flocked into the monastery, the artful Boris, though with affected reluctance, and compelled by the unanimous entreaties of the people, repaired to the palace of the Tzars, and consented to be crowned.

Just before the time appointed for his coronation, there was a report that the khan of Crimea had determined to fall upon Russia, and that he had even received succours from the Turks. This news caused the ceremony to be delayed.

Boris assembled, at Serpukhof, the most brilliant army that Russia had ever beheld. The boyards and nobles appeared in their greatest splendour before their new sovereign. They had assembled the largest possible number of their vassals, all of whom were well clothed, well mounted, and plentifully furnished with ammunition. It is said that this army was composed of 200,000 men, and some authors contend that it was still more numerous.

All these preparations, however, were in vain. There was no Tartar army in the field, and it was even supposed that Boris had invented the report of invasion that he might collect his forces, and establish himself on the throne.

His coronation was now celebrated with great magnificence. During the performance of mass, he elevated his voice, and called God to witness that during his reign, he would suffer none of his subjects to languish in misery and neglect. Knowing the force which sensible signs add to discourse, he even tore off his inner garment, and exclaimed, that he was ready to share all that he possessed, and to apply it to the relief of the unfortunate and distressed.

He pursued the plan which Ivan had formed for enlightening the people. He invited German physicians and apothecaries into Russia, and permitted them to erect a church for their own Communion. If his reign had been longer, or if the end of it had been less afflicted with dissensions, he would have procured

learned men from Germany, France, and England, to teach the languages and science. Animated by the zeal for knowledge which afterwards distinguished Peter the first, he sent sixteen young men of noble descent into foreign countries, to pursue such studies as were unknown in Russia: five were confided to the magistrate of Lubeck, and the others were placed at the court of Charles IX. king of Sweden.

In the year 1600, Boris concluded a peace with the Poles, but determined to continue the war against the Swedes; being disappointed, however, in some of his attempts upon this nation, he formed an alliance with the Swedish monarch, and even proposed a match between the king's brother and his daughter.

About this period, the city of Moscow was visited with one of the most terrible famines recorded in history. Mothers are said to have slain, and eaten their children. A woman unable to endure the torment of hunger, seized, with her teeth, a piece of the flesh of her son whom she carried in her arms. Four women, lodging together, agreed to invite to their house a man who sold wood; as soon as he entered, they seized and killed him, and afterwards slew his horse; dragging both the bodies into a cave of ice, in which their provisions had been preserved. Upon their discovery and arrest, these miserable beings confessed that this peasant was the third man that, through the pressure of necessity, they had devoured.

In the city of Moscow alone, a hundred and twenty-seven thousand corpses were accumulated in the streets, and then buried in the fields, exclusive of all those which had been previously interred in the 400 churches which the city contained. An eye witness relates, that the famine carried off 500,000 men in the capital, which was then most densely peopled, and whose population was even augmented by an influx of strangers from all parts.

An historian prejudiced against Boris, relates that, during this dreadful period, the servants of the court committed numerous acts of violence, either at the command, or with the collusion of the sovereign;—but *was not* this violence laudable, since it consisted in

opening granaries which avarice had closed, and in compelling their owners to sell the corn which they contained, at half the usual price, that it might be distributed among the famished multitude.

Boris promoted the interest of commerce. He renewed, and increased the privileges of the Hanseatic towns; and Lubeck in particular was exempted from the accustomed dues.

The Tzar entertained a great number of Lithuanian, Polish, and German officers, clad after the manner of their own countries, and who formed the Russians to the art of war. The richness of their attire, proved the kindness of their new master, who delighted to exhibit them, when he received the ambassador of some European prince.

In 1604. A young man appeared, who pretended to be Dmitri, whom Boris had caused to be slain. This distinguished adventurer, is said to have been a monk; who having heard in his convent that he resembled the slaughtered prince, assumed his name, and plotted to ascend the throne. He retired from Russia into Poland, where he gained the favour of the nobles, to whom he entrusted it as a secret, that he was the son of Ivan, and therefore the lawful successor to the Russian crown. To ingratiate himself with the Poles, he learnt their language, and professed to be converted to the catholic faith. The voivode of Sandomir was so attracted by the graces of his person, and the charms of his eloquence, that he promised to give him his daughter in marriage, when he should become the Russian Tzar. By means of this voivode, whose influence was great, the king of Poland himself was won over to his cause; while the Kozaks of the Don, whom Boris was endeavouring to oppress, espoused his claims with promptitude and zeal.

The news that Dmitri was still alive soon found its way into Russia; but Boris, who knew that the self-named Dmitri was an impostor, employed every means to secure his person, or at least to crush his enterprize in the bud. He forbad all intercourse between the Russians and Poles; he sent assassins in quest of Dmitri, with orders to kill him; he caused him to be

excommunicated by the head of the church; he called upon the dowager empress to avow the death of her son; he wrote to the king of Poland, requesting him to disown a vile impostor—but all in vain: the majority of the nation believed the pretended Dmitri to be the son of the deceased Tzar; and since God, as they conceived, had preserved him by a miracle, they determined to support him in his claim to the throne. Thus, ere Dmitri made his appearance in Russia, a numerous party was formed in his behalf. He soon marched to the frontiers, attended by a regiment of Poles, and a corps of Kozaks. Boris sent an army to meet him, but, after an arduous struggle, Dmitri remained master of the field. Unhappily for the Tzar, just at this time, northern lights, and a comet appeared in the sky—phœnomena, which the Russians regarded as a token of divine wrath, and which they supposed could be only averted, by supporting the cause of Dmitri, the child of divine providence and care. Boris, to whom Sweden had in vain offered her aid, took poison; and the fortunate monk ascended the throne in his stead.

FEDOR II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1605, DIED 1605.

After the death of Boris, Fedor, his son, was proclaimed Tzar by the patriarch, the boyards, and the different orders of the state. But, being scarcely sixteen years of age, he was incapable of governing Russia in the midst of the troubles into which it was plunged.

An attempt was made to remedy the weakness of his age, by placing him under the direction of his mother, and the most distinguished nobles; but this form of administration was ill adapted to a revolutionary period, and the idea of it was soon abandoned.

In vain, persons were sent into all the towns to administer the oath of allegiance to the new Tzar. *In vain*, the metropolitan of Novgorod repaired to the army

which was then before Kromy; for its soldiers were traitors in heart: disunion and strife arose on every hand. The inhabitants of the towns sent to inquire the sentiments of the army, and the warriors, the disposition of the towns. Reza, Tula, Cochine, and Alexine, revolted at once from Fedor, and acknowledged the pretended Dmitri. Barmanof, a principal general, deserted to the new sovereign, and two of the Galatzins followed his example.

Dmitri, ignorant of the part which the inhabitants of Moscow would take in the new state of affairs, sent two messengers to that city, to act as spies. These stopped on their way at a considerable village, named Krasno Celo, whose inhabitants, detesting the government of Godunof, were ripe for a revolt to the pretended Tzar. Here they learnt that the cause of Dmitri was popular in the capital; and, having placed themselves at the head of the peasantry, they proceeded to its gates. They were joined on the road by a multitude who ran from the city to meet them, and even by a great number of the Strelitzes. In the mean time, the patriarch, at the entreaty of the boyards, appeared in the midst of the people, to exhort them to fidelity to their prince; but he was regarded with indifference, and answered by cries of sedition and revolt. The city was thrown open to the rebels, and Dmitri proclaimed Tzar; while the unfortunate Fedor, with his mother, were assassinated in the palace, and their lifeless bodies exposed to vulgar and cruel gaze.

DMITRI V.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1605, DIED 1606.

DMITRI made his entrance into the capital, on the 20th of June, 1605, surrounded by nobles of the highest rank, and followed by the armies of Russia and Poland. He was met by the clergy, with their crosses and images; and, alighting from his horse, marched to the cathedral, to offer thanks to heaven for his accession

to the throne. Fifteen days after, he received, at the hands of a new patriarch, the crown of the Tzars.

As the last wife of Ivan, the mother of Dmitri, still lived, the first concern of the new Tzar was to be recognized as her son. Having sent messengers to fetch her from the convent in which she had been long immured, he went forth from the city to meet her on the road. A numerous crowd followed in his train. Those who where his attached followers, and those who doubted his regal descent, were alike anxious to be witnesses of this interview. Dmitri threw himself into the bosom of the Tzaritza; they remained clasped in mutual embrace; and the voice of nature seemed to speak through their caresses and tears.

The Tzaritza was conducted in pomp to the monastery of Ascension, where she was lodged in apartments suited to her rank.

The public recognition of Dmitri by the widow of Ivan, as her son, was not sufficient to relieve all doubts on the subject of his birth. It was still whispered that an impostor filled the throne. These reports reached the Tzar; and, to detect their authors, he employed rigid inquiry, and severe torture.

Dmitri, believing himself fixed on the throne, sent an ambassador to Poland, to demand the daughter of the prince of Sandomir in marriage. This embassy was favourably received; and the young princess, accompanied by her father, and 4000 of his armed vassals, made her entrance into the capital of her future spouse. The presence of so large a body of foreign troops, filled the Russians with suspicions and fears, which the daily manners of Dmitri were little adapted to remove. He treated the customs of his new subjects with contempt. He surrounded himself with catholic monks and priests. He walked in the public streets, accompanied by few attendants; whereas the Tzars never appeared but with a splendid retinue, and in an imposing dress. He treated the nobles as his equals and friends; but the Tzars never suffered themselves to be seen at their court, without an air of authority and menace. Hence, he was regarded as a man born to meanness, unworthy of empire, and incapable even of representing the person of a sovereign.

At length the day appointed for the marriage of Dmitri arrived. The patriarch placed the crown upon the head of the bride. This ceremony, opposed to the ancient usage of the empire, was regarded as a violation of the laws, and the permission granted to strangers to enter into this church, as an insult offered to the religion of the state.

The Poles, proud of the protection of the Tzar, whom they served to render odious to his subjects, began to act the part of tyrants and lords. Heated by strong liquors, especially during the nuptial feast, they ran through the the city, insulting, robbing, and committing all manner of excess, wherever they came.

Certain of the strelitzes, indignant at these outrages, formed a conspiracy against their prince; but they were betrayed by one of their number, and suffered the punishment of their crime.

While, however, the court was immersed in mirth and riot, Shuiski, who had already been forgiven an act of treason by Dmitri, was employed in forming designs against his government and life. He assembled his relations, his friends, and his servants. He denounced the Tzar as an impious monk, who had at the same time renounced the habit of his order, and the faith of his fathers; adding, that the time had arrived, when they were called upon to avenge the cause of their country, and their God. All exclaimed with one consent, that they were ready to die for their country and religion. They arm themselves in haste, and sound a general alarm; the people rally around them from every side, and swear that the death of the impostor shall be achieved.

The Tzar was sunk in profound sleep. Of four companies of guards that he had formed, he retained only thirty men for the immediate protection of his person. Basmanof, who passed the night near him, heard the alarm of the clocks, and awaked him. Immediately the shouts of the people who were advancing, announced that the revolt was general. Dmitri arises in haste, and advancing to the threshold of the palace, he hopes to awe the people by his presence, but in vain: he sees that his dominion has fled, and retires in terror

and dismay. The people having slain Basmanof, who endeavoured to quell their rage, force the gates of the palace, and pursue the Tzar to his inmost retreat; driven from room to room, the affrighted prince perceives a window which opens into a narrow court; he throws himself from it, and in his fall receives several wounds. Several of the guards and of the strelitzes, pierced with his groans, fly to his relief, convey him into his palace, and swear to die in his defence. The boyards call upon them to deliver to them a traitor whom impostors alone has placed upon the throne; but they reply, that the prince is the son of Ivan, and that they will shed for him the last drop of their blood. This courageous answer is generally heard, and passes from mouth to mouth. The fury of the multitude is appeased, and the leaders of the revolt are thrown into agitation and alarm. They raise their voice, and propose to repair to the widow of Ivan, to develop the truth. The proposal is accepted. Shuiski with some of his friends, run to the monastery, and return with the announcement that the princess in declaring Dmitri her son, had proclaimed a falsehood, in order to save her life.

These words re-wake the fury of the crowd. They throw themselves upon the wretched Dmitri, and kill him with a thousand blows. His body is burned, after having been exposed for three days in the place where he fell.*

SHUISKI.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1606, DIED 1610.

UPON the death of Dmitri, Shuiski was named Tzar by acclamation, and conducted to the cathedral church. He then swore to punish no one without the advice of his nobles, in no instance to visit the crimes of the parents upon the children, and to forgive all state offences that had been committed from the time of Boris. But

* It would occupy too much space in this abridgment of Russian history, to enter into the question of Dmitri's claims.

notwithstanding these oaths, he knew not how to forget the insult he had received. He banished into various countries the nobles and officers who opposed his designs, and confiscated their estates.

Soon after the accession of Shuiski, a report was spread that Dmitri was yet alive. Alarmed by this rumour, he commanded the remains of that prince, or of him who was assassinated in his stead, to be brought from Uglitch, and to be attended with religious rites. He established three festivals to his honour, that of his birth, that of his death, and that of the translation of his relics, to the capital. This policy was acute: if Dmitri became an object of religious veneration to the people, if he was numbered among the martyred saints, all who assumed his name must be impostors.

But in the Ukraine, the people were more inclined to rebellion, than to the celebration of the new feasts. They rose in mass, and having elected one Bolotnikof for their general, surprised the towns, plundered the houses, and spread universal desolation in their march. Their example diffused a spirit of revolt. The peasants believed that the time had arrived, to exterminate the noblesse, and to re-establish equality in the land. The blood of the nobles flowed in torrents; and their limbs mangled and exposed to public view, were regarded as calls to liberty, and pledges of triumph.

Bolotnikof hastened to the capital; in the terror in into which it was plunged, it would have yielded to his arms, if succours from Smolensk and other towns had not come to its relief. The rebels however were now beaten and dispersed. The greater part of them implored the clemency of the Tzar, and obtained their pardon; while those who remained in arms, were slaughtered without mercy or distinction.

The Kozacks, taking advantage of the enfeebled state of the empire, set up one Vassilief, whom they named Peter, as a claimant to the throne.* Under his command, they made an irruption into the interior of Russia, and acquired re-inforcements at every step. The forces that were sent to oppose them, they defeated

* They pretended that he was the son of the Tzar Fedor.

with ease. Woe to the nobles, whom either treachery, or the fortune of arms brought under their power; they were put to death with every variety of torture, that barbaric ingenuity could devise.

Shuiski, perceiving that he had no common enemy to encounter, determined to take the field in person. He marched against the rebels, who were commanded by Teliatevski, a Russian prince and traitor; and a sanguinary battle ensued. The advantage was for a long time on the side of the rebels, and the army of the Tsar began to yield; but the princes Lykof and Galitzin threw themselves into the midst of the enemy, and by their courageous example, retrieved the fortune of the day. The troops of Teliatevski were defeated with great slaughter, and Shuiski advanced without resistance to Tula.

Shuiski invested the city with his troops, and prepared to carry it by assault; but in the midst of his preparations, he was informed that a youthful boyard, of the name of Sumin, had proposed to inundate the city, if the inhabitants refused to surrender. The Tsar and his nobles smiled at the proposal; but Sumin, indifferent to their raillery, insisted upon it with such ardour, that he obtained permission to make the attempt. A small river which was named Upa, flowed through Tula: Sumin commanded the soldiers to fill large bags with earth, and to cast them into it, near the place where it leaves the town. His orders were obeyed; and the work, after some difficulty and delay, was crowned with success. The river, forced from its bed, began to deluge the town; and the inhabitants, terrified at the danger which threatened them, sent their submission to the Tsar. They loaded the false Dmitri with chains, and dragged him into the presence of the victor, who put him with the other chiefs of the revolt, to a cruel and ignominious death.

Another false Dmitri now appeared in the person of Andrey Nagui, a young man of a foreign nation and obscure birth. He commenced his career in the town of Starodub, whose inhabitants not only favoured his pretensions, but commanded Shuiski to acknowledge *himself a usurper*, and renounce his crown.

Nagui soon found himself at the head of a numerous army, and opened the campaign by laying siege to Briansk, on the 15th of December; but the winter was so mild, that the river which separated him from his enemies, was only studded with patches of floating ice. This unexpected obstacle enraged the soldiers, and only seemed to heighten their courage: without waiting for the command of their general, they plunged into the water, and partly by swimming, partly by traversing the ice, they gained the opposite shore. The besieged, animated by this spectacle of surprising valour, made at the same time a vigorous sally, and the rebels were constrained to retreat. It froze so hard during the night, that the next morning Kurakin passed over the river with his baggage, and after a brief skirmish with the enemy, succeeded in relieving the town.

Nagui retired to Orel, where he took up his winter quarters, and received new succcours.

At the return of spring, both armies took the field; but the impostor triumphed, and even threatened Moscow with a siege. The generals of the Tzar retired with the nobles into the capital; and the soldiers, abandoned by their chiefs, fled to their homes.

Nagui encamped near the village of Tuchino, at the distance of two leagues from Moscow. The Tzar recalled the various divisions of his army to the defence of the capital; but soon found that his most formidable foes were cherished within its walls. A conspiracy, in favour of the impostor, had been formed by prince Gagarin, and joined by some of the principal men of the state. At the appointed hour, the conspirators ran to the palace, determined to assassinate their prince, and transfer the crown. Shuiski, at this moment, shewed himself worthy of a throne. He boldly presented himself to the revolters, accompanied with his guards: his presence filled them with awe; they fled in dismay, and, to the number of 300, went over to the rebel camp.

Nagui having discovered the roads, by which provisions were conveyed to the capital, intercepted them with his troops. Immediately, all the horrors of famine ensued. The inhabitants driven by want, repaired in a crowd to

the impostor; and the Tzar was threatened with a general desertion.

At this important crisis, Gargarin, the author of the late revolt, returned to Moscow; but humbled and penitent, he offered himself to punishment, and recalled the people to the duty from which he had swerved. For having arrived at Tuchino, and believing that he was about to pay homage to the true Dmitri, he was surprised to find a stranger who bore no resemblance to that prince. Ashamed of his error, and torn with remorse, he deserted the impostor; and at the peril of his life, returned to the capital, that he might undeceive its citizens, and restore its peace.

Nagui having received succour from Poland, sallied from his entrenchments, and was met in combat by the Tzar. The battle was sanguinary: the two parties, inspired with equal fury, shewed the same courage; but at length the Poles were beaten, and driven back to their entrenchments. Here, however, they rallied, and having returned to the charge, endeavoured to set fire to that part of the capital which was built of wood. The Tzar opposed them with a great part of his troops. At first victory seemed to forsake him, but having received succour from the city, he defeated the enemy with great slaughter.

The troubles of the state were renewed by the appearance of other impostors, until the people, weary of faction and strife, compelled Shuiski to resign his crown, and assume the habit of a monk.

INTERREGNUM.

UPON the dethronement of Shuiski, Vladislaus son of Sigismond, king of Poland, was elected sovereign of Russia, on condition that he should embrace the Greek religion. As soon as he was acknowledged Tzar, an embassy was sent to the Polish monarch, to do homage

to his son in the name of the Russian people, and to confirm the conditions on which he had been raised to the throne. The chiefs of this mission were the Metropolitan Philaretes, and the prince Galitzin, who had been distinguished by military talent and rank. To these were added some of the most learned ecclesiastics of their time, and certain nobles of inferior rank: they set out from Moscow the 9th September, 1610.

They were presented to the king in his camp before Smolensk, of which he was carrying on the siege. He gave them a gracious reception, and proposed that they should cause the city to be delivered into his hands. "When the prince your son," replied Philaretes, "shall have ascended the throne, he will possess not only Smolensk, but all Russia: it is not proper to dismember his estates." This bold answer excited the anger of Sigismond. He soon renewed the design he had formed of uniting the finest provinces of Russia to Poland, and wholly refused to send his son to Moscow. Weary of the representations and the remonstrances of the ambassadors, he threw them into prison, where they languished for nine years in suffering and neglect.

The inhabitants of Moscow were now enslaved by the army of Poles, which under pretence of defending them from the adherents of Dmitri, had entered the city, and deprived the boyards of their power. They wrote a letter to Sigismond, in which they implored him to send them his son, and promised, that if this boon should be granted, they would submit entirely to his will. The patriarch alone refused to sign the letter, declaring that it contained a surrender of their country, their laws, and their religion.

This pontiff had rendered himself odious to the partisans of Poland; he unveiled their designs, he maintained the courage of the people, and confirmed their attachment to the church of which he was the spiritual head. His virtue, and even his prejudices rendered him formidable to the venal and treacherous citizens. Moreover, such were the prerogatives of his office, that his approbation and signature were necessary to give weight to their deliberations, and to legitimate their plans. As therefore, they could neither seduce him by promises, nor

terrify him by threats, they determined to assassinate him at a religious procession that he was soon to celebrate; nor were the people to be spared. But the conspiracy was discovered, the procession was deferred, and the people remained quiet in their homes.

This defeat of their plans, increased the fury of the Poles. They delayed their vengeance only until the morrow, which they made a day of awful carnage. All the streets and public places were deluged with blood; the priests and monks were the first victims. The attractions of youth, the infirmities of age, the weakness of infancy, were no protection from the assassin's stroke.

A great number of houses were consigned to the flames; the churches and monasteries pillaged and razed; the *sacred* relics thrown about, and dispersed; and the images which the ignorant Russians regarded with idolatrous veneration, made the objects of mockery and sport. Many boyards perished; and a Prince Galitzin, brother of the ambassador, was assassinated in his house. The patriarch was spared in the general carnage; but he was degraded from his office, reduced to the order of a monk, and imprisoned at Tchudof, where he died of hunger and confinement.

When Liapunof, one of the principal conspirators against Shuiski, had heard at Kazan of the conduct of the Poles, he exhorted the principal towns of Russia to unite their forces against these perfidious enemies of the state. Kaluga, Volodimir, Souzdal, Yaroslavl, and many others, listened to his entreaties, and entered into a confederation. Troops were levied, a numerous army raised, and the capital besieged; but the number of generals prevented that unity of operation which is necessary to success.

If, however, the Russians made little progress in the siege of Moscow, Sigismond had no greater success in the attack of Smolensk; his troops relaxed in their ardour, while the courage of the besieged remained firm and unsubdued. It is even probable that he would have been compelled to raise the siege of the city, if no traitor had been found within its walls.

A wretch, named Dedichin, evaded the vigilance of *the guards,* and repaired to the camp of Sigismond.

He pointed out to him a side of the city where the wall, having been built in haste, could be easily destroyed. All the efforts of the besiegers were immediately directed to this spot; a breach was effected, and the town carried by assault during the night. A great number of the common people fled for refuge into the principal church; but, one of them, as though he beheld with regret any of his fellow citizens escape the general carnage, set fire to the powder which had been deposited in its cells during the siege.

Russia was thus deprived of one of the chief of its frontier towns, and had little hope of recovering Moscow from the Poles. Dissension still reigned among her chiefs; while the army which they commanded was enfeebled by famine and disease.

In this important crisis of affairs, a common citizen of Nijni Novgorod, whose name was Minin, resolved to rescue his country from her oppressors, or perish in the attempt. He assembles his fellow-citizens; he exhorts them to sacrifice their fortune, to sell their houses, their chattels, their clothes, and even their wives and children, to enable them to furnish troops, and place a skilful general at their head.

The patriotic ardour of Minin was soon transfused into every breast. A deputation is sent to Pojarski, a general of established fame, entreating him to take the command of the army, when raised, and to save the state. Pojarski loved his country, and embraced this opportunity of serving it, with eagerness and joy. The report of his enterprise is no sooner spread, than he receives troops from Dorogobuge, from Viazma, and from the territory of Smolensk, for the city was still in the hands of the Poles.

Arrived with his little army at Nijni Novgorod, he has the mortification to find that the funds raised for its support are small; but, as soon as his arrival is known, they are replenished with the greatest promptitude and zeal. The towns even vie with one another in defraying the expenses of the war. The offer of liberal wages places under his command a number of citizens familiar with the manufacture of arms; and the Strelitzes and Kozacks flock to his banner in crowds.

majority of votes fell upon Michael, son of Fedor Nikitich, made a monk by Boris, elevated by Dmitri to the dignity of metropolitan of Rostof, and now a prisoner in Varsovia. Michael was only sixteen years of age, and ignorant of the dangerous honour, which had been conferred upon him. He was at Kostroma, in the monastery of Ipatski, where his mother was superintending his education, in the calm and humble retirement of a religious life.

Immediately after the election, deputies were sent to the new prince, to offer him the homage and the oaths of his subjects. His mother affrighted, and too well instructed by misfortune, to be dazzled by the splendour of a crown, saw only the dangers that threatened her son. Her affrighted imagination presented him to her hurled from the throne, overwhelmed with the blows of the assassin, and shedding upon her maternal bosom the last drop of his blood. She abjured, in the name of the young prince, the dangerous honours which awaited him; and when constrained to yield to the prayers and entreaties of the deputies, she delivered him with tears to the snares and perils of imperial state.

The new Tzar arrived at Moscow, two months after his election, and was consecrated by the metropolitan of Kazan. This ceremony confirmed his right to the throne, but could not qualify him for the discharge of its high and important functions. Young, and without experience, educated in a religious retreat, and taken from a convent, to guide and re-establish an empire that had been convulsed to its base; he had to preserve internal peace, to repel the hostile incursions of Sweden and Poland, and to prevent, or resist the unforeseen attacks of the Kozacks and Tartars.

The Tzar sent an embassy to the monarch of Sweden, to announce his accession to the throne. He besought him to confirm the treaty of peace which had been signed between the two countries, in the time of Shuiski, and to restore the provinces which Sweden had taken during the interregnum. But these proposals little accorded with the ambitious views of Gustavus Adolphus, the *Swedish king*. He informed the ambassadors that he *should retain* the provinces which he had taken from

Russia, as pledges for the payment of the succours that he had granted Shuiski; and that he had other indemnities to demand, which if not granted, he knew how to obtain by force of arms.

The Tzar sent a similar embassy to Poland, but this also was proudly rejected. Russia had therefore to prepare for two wars.

As the Swedes were endeavouring to secure the possession of Novgorod, Michael determined to oppose their designs. He sent against them a body of troops, under the command of Trabetski, the general who had contributed to the deliverance of Moscow from the Poles. These drove the Swedes from Staraia-Russa, but, being afterwards entrenched in an island which is formed by the river Msta, they were surrounded by the enemy, and compelled to surrender. The Russians evacuated Staraia-Russa, and the Swedes extended their dominion on every side.

The Tzar now implored the mediation of France, of England, and of Holland. Gustavus, also, whose coffers were exhausted, and who despaired of retaining Novgorod, implored the good offices of England, and of the seven United States.

Soon after, John Merrick arrived in Russia, as ambassador from Great Britain, and assisted by the envoy of Holland, effected a peace between the hostile powers. The Tzar recovered Novgorod; but he was obliged to cede to Sweden Ingria, Carelia, and all the country between Ingria and Novgorod; to sign a formal renunciation of Livonia and Esthonia, and to pay a considerable sum of money. This treaty was concluded the 26th of January, 1616.

The young Tzar, in ascending the throne, saw with indignation, that the possession of Smolensk by the Poles furnished them with a key to his estates. His first care was to send troops to besiege that city: these took Belaia on their route; but the Russians were deceived, if they regarded this slender advantage, as a presage of future success.

Sigismond, on his side, was not content to possess a frontier town of Russia, without availing himself of all the advantages which it afforded him. His general

Lisovski made frequent incursions into the empire, and by his desultory mode of attack, evaded or harassed the troops that were sent to oppose him, spread fire and desolation in his march, and returned into Poland, leaving the Russians to bewail losses which they had no power to avenge.

At the same time, the Kozacks invaded Russia, and were joined on their march by the infant-boyards.* Not content with desolating the fields, destroying the cattle, burning the towns and villages, and slaying the men, they practised the most attrocious cruelties, as a relief from the fatigues, and a recreation amidst the toils of war. Prince Lykof was sent with an army to oppose them in their march. This general had orders to offer them pardon, if they would swear allegiance to the Tzar, and return in peace to their homes. Believing that this offer was the effect of fear, they scorned to accept it, and pursued their route to the capital. But Lykof kept close to them in their march, and being joined by other troops, he surrounded and defeated them. Those of them who escaped from the carnage, took the oath of fidelity to the Tzar; and punishment was inflicted upon none but the leaders of the revolt.

The Tzar, obliged to divide his forces, was unable to attack Smolensk with vigour. As the army that besieged it made no progress, a considerable reinforcement was sent to its support; but a part was cut off by the Poles; the rest feared to advance, and their commander took to flight. Vladislaus himself came to the relief of Smolensk. The voyevode who commanded the siege, lost all hope, and retired: pursued and beaten, he returned to Moscow to receive the punishment of his misfortunes.

Vladislaus, whose presence was not required at Smolensk, penetrated far into the country, and advanced to the walls of the capital, which he would have taken by nocturnal assault, if his design had not been betrayed by deserters from his camp. The attack commenced about midnight, at one of the gates, which was speedily

d of petty nobility, trained to plunder from their youth.

forced. The Poles considered themselves masters of the city, and pushed forward with determined vigour; but, all at once, their course was arrested by a fortification of wood, which had been raised for the defence of a select body of troops. During a long time, equal ardour was displayed in the attack, and in the defence. The courage of the Russians was animated by the wrongs which they had endured from the Poles, and by the fear of again falling under their oppression. They sustained great loss; but they obtained the victory, and deprived the enemy both of courage and hope.

A peace was now concluded between Russia and Poland, and an exchange of prisoners was immediately effected. The most illustrious of these was Philaretes, the father of Romanof, and who had been detained in captivity during the whole of the war. The day of his re-entrance into Moscow was a day of festivity to all Russia. The Tzar, desirous that none of his subjects should remain in sorrow, when his own joy was so animated and pure, decreed the deliverance of prisoners, and the return of exiles, throughout the empire. Philaretes was soon after raised to the Patriarchate of the empire, an office which he filled to the satisfaction of the people, and the advantage of his son.

The state wearied, and almost exhausted, with intestine dissension and foreign attack, had need of a long peace, which it now happily enjoyed.

On the death of Sigismund, Romanof commenced a war with Poland, for the recovery of Smolensk, and committed the conduct of it to Chëin, a general who, on a former occasion, had defended that city with distinguished valour, and had now under his command a large number of foreign as well as national troops. Regiments of German cavalry comprised a part of his army; and he had infantry, both from that nation, and from the French. On his route to Smolensk, he captured a number of towns, and gained several battles; but after having besieged the city for two years, without success, his army was driven to the greatest extremities, and he made a disgraceful surrender to the Poles. The court would have granted him his pardon, but it was deemed necessary to sacrifice him to the vengeance of the

nation. Cheïn, Ismaïlof, who commanded under him, and one of the sons of Ismaïlof lost their heads; while inferior chiefs received the knout, or were sent as exiles into Siberia.

The Tzar, unable to renew the siege of Smolensk, with the least hope of success, confirmed the possession of it to Poland, by a new treaty of peace; and, to aggravate his misfortunes, he was, about the same time, deprived of his father by death.

The Tzar, amidst the leisure afforded him by peace, constructed fortresses for the defence of his estates against the incursions of the Tartars; and invited foreign officers into his empire, who formed regular troops both of cavalry and infantry, upon the model of the other nations of Europe. It is in this reign that mention is made, for the first time, of dragoons in the armies of Russia.

The empire gradually recovered from the violent shocks which it had received, and which had threatened its ruin. The Tzar loved peace, and perceived its importance to the welfare of his subjects. After a reign distinguished by wisdom and virtue, he died in July, 1645, at the age of forty-nine.

ALEXEY.

BEGAN TO REIGN, 1645, DIED 1676.

ALEXEY, son of the late Tzar, was only sixteen years of age at the time of his father's death; but the wise government of Mikhail, and the peace which had reigned for more than ten years, lightened the burden of empire which devolved upon the young prince.

A few years after his accession to the throne, Alexey married the daughter of Miloslavski, a private gentleman, who enjoyed no distinction either of title or rank. The young Tzaritza, whose name was Maria, was renowned for her beauty, and she had a sister whose

personal attractions were scarcely inferior to her own. This second daughter of Miloslavski, was soon after married to Morozok, a sordid and ambitious noble, who had formerly been governor to the Tzar.

The avarice of Morozof, increased by the facilities of gratification, which were afforded by his alliance to the prince, exposed him to the hatred of the nation, and occasioned a revolt. The seditious populace, headed and encouraged by the soldiery, besieged the palace, and demanded that Morozof and two other nobles should be delivered to vengeance and death. The name of the one was Plestcheef, that of the other Trakhanitof; Morozof and Trakhanitof were concealed. The Tzar supposing that one victim would appease the fury of the people, delivered to them Plestcheef, who was immediately massacred before him. The revolters then proceeded to the houses of Morozof and other suspected nobles, which they forced and plundered without mercy or restraint. They commenced the work of pillage to satiate their vengeance; they continued it to gratify their avarice and rage. The officers of the court, the merchants, all those who could offer any prey to their lawless desires, were treated as foes.

During this disorder and alarm, a fire broke out in the city, which the revolters ought to have attributed to themselves, but which only served to aggravate their thirst for revenge. They return to the palace, they rend the air with their shouts, and demand a second victim from the prince. Trakhanitof is delivered into their hands, dragged into the court, and cut in pieces. At last, to appease the revolt, the prince is obliged to repeal certain taxes, which had originated with Morozof, and even to descend to entreaties for the life of that obnoxious noble.

The flame of rebellion, that had been lighted in the capital, soon spread into the provinces, and produced the most appalling results. The inhabitants of Pleskof had been required to furnish a large contribution of corn: it was levied without justice or compassion, and a famine ensued. The people demanded satisfaction, but in vain. A sedition arose; and a number of villains, profiting by the general confusion, filled the city with

alarm and destruction. The prince Khovanski was sent by the Tzar to subdue this revolt, and his efforts were crowned with success.

In the midst of these troubles of the state, Alexey published a code of laws, a part of which is in force at the present time. That it contains many errors and faults it would be vain to deny; but we must honour the memory of a prince who, when his country had scarcely emerged from the darkness of barbarism, was anxious to provide his subjects with legal statutes, founded upon their situation, their religious ideas, their manners, their usages, and their form of government.

Another false Dmitri now appeared; but though he was first supported by Poland, and afterwards by the Duke of Holstein, his conspiracy was defeated; he was brought to Moscow as a captive, and being convicted of imposture, was put to a violent and barbarous death.

In the fourteenth century, when Kief was reduced by the Lithuanians, a multitude of fugitive Russians collected in the lower regions of the Dniester, and formed a military government and colony, which, by numerous accessions, diffused itself to the countries of the Bog and the Dniester.—These were the Malo-Russian Kozacks.

The winter they spent in villages with their families, and in summer roamed about the steppes, waging continual warfare both with the Tartars and Turks. As a barrier against these formidable enemies, they were encouraged by the Polish princes, who presented them with the tracts which border on the cataracts of the Dnieper, and trained them to the art of war. At the period of which we are now writing, however, the Poles, departing from the wise policy which they had so long observed, began to oppress the Kozacks, to usurp the principal offices of their state, and to compel them to acknowledge the supremacy of the pope. These cruel oppressions induced the Kozacks to throw off the yoke of Poland, and offer submission to the Russian Tzar.

Alexey had long carried on a secret correspondence with the Hetman of the Kozacks; but it was in 1654, *in the midst* of a general council, composed of the

patriarch, the clergy, and the principal officers of the state, that he declared the Kozacks had implored his protection. He then sent commissioners to receive their oaths, and those of the towns which were under their government.

From that time the city of Kief, which had been brought under the sway of the Kozacks, was restored to the dominion of Russia, from which it had been so long separated. War was now declared against Poland, and Smolensk, after a siege of two months, submitted to the arms of the Tzar. The nobles and citizens who did not wish to live under the Russian government, obtained permission to retire into Poland. Vitepsk, Mohilof, and then Polotsk were involved in the same fate as Smolensk.

But while Alexey was thus multiplying his conquests, the plague spread its ravages in the capital, and in many other parts of the empire; so that he was obliged to pass the winter at Viazma. As soon, however, as the season would permit, he again took the field, and carried his victorious arms into Lithuania and Servia, both of which countries he subdued.

The Tzar being irritated against the Swedish monarch, who had invaded Poland, while the Russians were engaged in the conquest of Lithuania, attacked Carelia, Ingria, and Livonia. Nienchantz, Dorpat, Narva, and many other towns of less importance, fell into his hands; but his assault of Riga was less fortunate, and he was compelled to raise the siege.

Russia, notwithstanding the number and splendour of her conquests, began to demand repose. During five years she had been afflicted with contagious disorders, which had wasted both man and beast; while through a change in the currency of the realm, her commerce languished, and public confidence was destroyed.

These troubles of the empire excited a spirit of revolt. Eighteen thousand men, rendered desperate by poverty, armed themselves with axes and knives. Half of them remained at Moscow, to plunder the city; the other half repaired to the Tzar, who was residing at a country house in the vicinity of the capital. The prince, always inclined to clemency, endeavoured to appease them with

words of mildness and entreaty, but in vain. He then gave orders to his guards to charge the revolters, who, being badly armed, were slaughtered or dispersed.

The Tzar having suppressed the sedition, restored the coin to its former standard of value; the people were satisfied, and commerce revived.

About this time, the patriarch Nikon was solemnly deposed. He had been a principal favourite with the Tzar, but having counselled him to the prosecution of wars which proved unfortunate in their result, he fell into neglect and disgrace. Nikon, perceiving the revolution which had taken place in the sentiments of Alexey with respect to him, requested and obtained permission to retire into a monastery, and there end his days. He preserved, however, the title of patriarch, while the high functions of that office were performed by the first metropolitan of the empire.

Accustomed to active pursuits, Nikon did not suffer himself to languish in the indolence of a monastic life. He made a collection of the Russian chronicles, from Nestor to his own time; and having arranged and corrected them, formed a body of history which is justly esteemed.

But he was not long suffered to enjoy this religious, and literary retreat. Loaded with the accusations of his enemies, he was summoned to Moscow, and there, in the presence of a numerous ecclesiastical assembly, deprived of the dignity of patriarch, reduced to the rank of a monk, and banished to a monastery in the neighbourhood of the Bielozero lake.

At the period of which we are now writing, the Russians were called to repel the incursions of one Rizan, a Kozack of the Don. The first exploit of this marauder was to fall upon a caravan, which traversed the road to Astrachan, and belonged to the Tzar. Not content with seizing its treasure, he added cruelty to pillage, and slew the gentlemen by whom it was accompanied in its route.

Rizan having increased the number of his adherents, descended the Volga, entered the Caspian sea, and coasted its shores until he arrived at the mouth of the *Yaik, which* river he ascended with his fleet. A body

of Strelitzes was sent to arrest his progress, but they were defeated, and fled.

Rizan was soon after joined by another Kozack of the Don, whose name was Krivoi, and who had followed in the same route. These two banditti having combined their forces, plundered all the vessels that voyaged from Persia to Astrachan. They even ravaged the Persian shores, destroying the towns and villages, and massacring the inhabitants; but they were at length stopped in their march of destruction, and compelled to return into Russia.

The Tzar sent a considerable army against Rizan, which was commanded by Prozorovski, and other distinguished generals. The rebel being surrounded both by sea and land, and having no means of escape, sent his submission to the Russian chief, accompanied with a promise that he would atone for his past crimes by his future fidelity and zeal. His submission was accepted, and he was conducted to Astrachan, until the pleasure of the Tzar concerning him should be known.

Alexey did not think it right to violate a promise which his general had made in his name. Rizan took the oath of fidelity, aud was sent, with his accomplices, to the shores of the Don. But no sooner had the faithless villain regained his freedom, than he renewed his work of pillage and desolation.

Prozorovski heard at Astrachan of these new excesses of Rizan, and sent an army of Strelitzes to arrest his march. But these mercenary soldiers having overtaken the enemy at Tchernoiar, revolted from their general, massacred their officers, and surrendered to the Kozack chief.

At the same time, a spirit of rebellion was developed at Astrachan. The troops, with an air of menace, demanded their pay for the last year, though they knew that, as the roads to Moscow were occupied by the enemy, no pecuniary supplies could have arrived. In this exigency of affairs, the metropolitan came to the relief of the governor. He not only exhorted the soldiers to tranquillity and patience, but furnished money for the payment of their arrears.

In a short time, Rizan came to the assault of the city. Prozorovski had adopted the wisest measures for its

defence; but the perfidy of its inhabitants betrayed it to the foe. One of them, who was placed on the ramparts, instead of resisting the attack of the rebels, assisted them in scaling the walls, and welcomed them into the city with open arms. The nobility, and the commanders of the troops, were first massacred; and no respect was paid even to the foreign merchants who were residing at Astrachan, for purposes of trade. Prozorovski was dangerously wounded, and his brother slain.

After having spent a month at Astrachan, and signalized every day by new acts of barbarity, Rizan, with part of his army, embarked on the Volga, and penetrated into the interior of Russia. He caused it to be reported, that he was on his march to Moscow, to restore to the people their true rights, to exterminate the boyards, and the nobles, and to annihilate those odious militias which served as satellites to successive tyrants. This report was generally believed, and excited the people to deeds of violence and blood. They revolt, attack and massacre the nobles, plunder their houses, and subject their families to every species of insult and outrage.

But the career of Rizan had now arrived at its close. Being attacked, at the same time, by two Russian princes of distinguished valour, he sustained a signal defeat, and fled to the shores of the Don. There he was arrested by the ataman of the Kozacks, loaded with irons, and sent to Moscow, where he ended a life of rebellion and plunder, by a public and ignominious death.

Alexey, having enjoyed peace during the remainder of his reign, died the twenty-ninth of January, 1676, in the forty-eighth year of his age, and in the thirty-second of his reign. He left, by his first wife, two sons, named Fedor and Ivan, and six daughters, one of whom, named Sophia, will be but too famous in one of the following reigns. He had, by his second marriage, Peter the Great, and the Tzarina Natalia.

Alexis was of lofty stature, and had a countenance amiable and mild. His character corresponded to this inviting exterior. Armed with despotic power, he never punished but with regret. He never sported with the lives of his subjects, nor sought to enrich himself at *their expence.* He even assigned a subsistence to the

few criminals whom he banished to Siberia; and some of them were permitted to acquire a fortune by their exile.

The Tzar was liable to paroxysms of anger, and would sometimes strike with his hand or foot the objects of his displeasure; but his resentment was momentary, and those who suffered from it, were afterwards rewarded with favours and gifts.

On a certain occasion, says Mayesberg, Alexey was blooded; and when the blood was stopped by the surgeon, he invited the courtiers to submit to the same operation. Without hesitation, they all suffered a vein to be opened. Stretchnef alone ventured to excuse himself, on account of his weakness and age. The prince, irritated at his refusal, loads him with reproaches, and even descends to strike him; while the moment after, he honours him with the richest presents.

It was under the reign of Alexey, that Russia first formed a connexion with China. In the year 1652, an infant-boyard of Tobolsk was sent thither to survey the country, and make his report to the Tzar. On his return, he brought with him gold, precious stones, and rare merchandise.

Two years after, Baikof, another infant-boyard, set out for China, being accompanied by a numerous retinue. On his arrival, he was received with honour, and treated with respect; but this embassy, like another of more modern times, failed of success, through the refusal of its chief to submit to the laws of etiquette, which are peculiar to the celestial empire.

The Tzar established, in different provinces of his empire, manufactures of cloth, of silk-stuff, and of irou. He peopled, with Polish and other captives, the vast deserts which border on the Volga and Kama. He even wished to form a fleet on the Caspian Sea, and, for this purpose, procured superior workmen from Holland and England. A Dutch captain, named Butler, constructed, at Didilof, the first regular-built vessel that Russia had seen. It was called "The Eagle," and was destroyed by the invader Rizan.

He was a friend and patron of learning. He caused many books which treated of the arts and sciences to be

translated into Russian, and to be spread over the empire for the instruction of his people.

He suspected that mines of gold were to be found in some part of his vast estates; but all his attempts to explore them were vain.

The Tzar lived upon terms of familiarity with those of the courtiers whom he loved. Being one day at the table of one of them, whose name was Matichef, he saw Natalia, a relation of the family, in the first flower of her youth and beauty. She pleased the Tzar: he saw her again, and she pleased him still more. He resolved to make her his wife. Matveef, knowing that he was an object of envy at court, was unwilling that Alexey should receive a wife at his hand; and therefore proposed that an assembly of the most beautiful young women in the empire should be convened, from which the Tzar might select a bride. Alexey yielded to the proposal; the assembly was held in 1672; and about sixty females presented themselves as candidates for the choice of the Tzar. The Tzar appeared to make his selection; but he had already given his heart to Natalia, and he declared her his bride. She was the mother of Peter the Great.

The superior nobles, who had large fortunes, were obliged to reside at Moscow, and to appear daily at court: a wise policy, which kept them from usurping an undue authority in the neighbourhood of their estates. It was on the same principle that he changed the governors of the provinces, once in every three years.

FEDOR III.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1676, DIED 1681.

FEDOR, the eldest son of Alexey, was nineteen years of age, at his father's death. His manners were mild, and his temper humane: he was animated by an ardent zeal to pursue the plans which his father had formed for the stability of the throne, and the prosperity of the state. If he had enjoyed firmer health, if he had reigned a longer time, he would have left a more celebrated name,

and have been enrolled among the most distinguished benefactors of mankind.

The war against the Turks, which Fedor inherited from his father, he brought to an honourable conclusion, by a truce for twenty years, which secured to him the sovereignty of the Kozacks, whom the Sultan was greatly desirous to incorporate with his empire.

Fedor made important reforms in the internal administration of his empire. He corrected the abuses of the law, and provided for the equitable administration of justice to the meanest of his subjects. He assisted those who were in low circumstances by the loan of monies, and procured a regular supply of provisions at a moderate price. But the crowning act of his reign was the abolition of an absurd, and pernicious usagewhich related to privilege of birth.

The noble families of Russia preserved genealogies and registers of descent, in which were inserted not only the names of their ancestors, but the offices which these had held at court, in the army, or in any other department of the state. If a nobleman were appointed to any civil or military station, and it is was perceived that the person to whom he was to be subordinate was inferior to himself in length of ancestry, it was with the utmost difficulty that he could be induced to fill the office to which he was called. Nay, a man would even refuse to engage in an employ, if thereby he should serve under one whose ancestors were formerly inferior to his own in importance and rank. Fedor, perceiving the pernicious effects of this system, which filled the nation with petty disputes and quarrels, determined to effect its destruction. For this purpose, he issued a proclamation that all the genealogies and registers should be delivered into court, that the errors which had crept into them might receive correction. The delivery being made, he convoked an assembly of the nobles and clergy, in which he represented, in arguments drawn from reason, and the patriarch, in arguments derived from religion, the absurd and unchristian character of the usage which he wished to abolish. These discourses being ended, the assembly were asked their opinions, when they unanimously assented, at least in words, to the judgment of the patriarch

and Tzar. The whole heap of records of service was now brought into the square before the palace, and burnt to ashes. To give an imposing effect to this ceremony, the patriarch anathematized every one who should dare to oppose this decree of the Tzar, while the assembly ratified his curse, in a general shout of Amen.

Having thus destroyed the ridiculous pretensions of nobility, he burst the shackles which custom had imposed upon the marriage of the Tzars. Hitherto, it had been maintained that the wife of the Tzar must be a native of Russia; but Fedor married a Pole, and when the patriarch declared the marriage to be void, he told him that he would either never marry at all, or according to his private inclination. On this, the patriarch retracted.

The Tzar attempted to effect an alteration in the national dress of the Russians, which was more Asiatic than European, by appointing festivities at court, and making it a term of admission, that the nobles should appear in a kind of Polish attire.

Fedor died the 16th of February, 1682, in the twenty-fifth year of his age, after a reign of five years and six months. "He lived," says a Russian historian, "the joy and delight of his people, and died amidst their sighs, and tears. On the day of his death, Moscow was in the same state of distress, as Rome was, on the death of Titus."

IVAN V. and PETER I.

THE late Tzar died without posterity; but he thought it unnecessary to name his successor, being persuaded that usage would secure the crown to Ivan, the elder of his two brothers. This prince was then sixteen years of age; he was of feeble health; and the infirm constitution of his body is said to have produced an injurious effect upon his mind. Peter, born of the second wife of Alexis, was yet a child.

If Ivan had been more favourably constituted by nature, he would have possessed an undoubted right to

the crown; but it was not without concern that the people saw a prince assume the reins of government, who had no talents to guide them aright. The nobles and the principal clergy assembled in council. Their sentiments were at first divided. As Ivan was not an entire idiot, there were some who defended his rights, and thought it unjust that a child should be permitted to supplant him in the throne. A great majority of votes, however, declared in favour of Peter, whose mind had already given indications of future greatness and power.

Sophia, who was born of the same mother as Ivan, had made this young prince the object of all her attentions, during the last years of Fedor. She had no doubt of his right to the crown, and she determined to support him under the weight of its duties and cares. Of a greater age than the second wife of her father, she united to exterior beauty and grace, a lofty ambition, and a vigorous mind. She beheld with grief a beloved brother excluded from the throne, and the son of Natalia raised to its honours in his stead. These sentiments, confined to her own breast, were not criminal; but it is asserted that she conspired the destruction of Peter, and employed the Strelitzes as agents in effecting her cruel design. This charge, however, which has so often been adduced against her, has never been proved.

Some unknown persons, either deceived, or from some evil design, rode into the quarter of the city where the Strelitzes were lodged, and exclaimed that the Naritchkins had strangled the prince Ivan. Immediately these troops assembled to the number of 20,000, and hastened to the Krem'l with all the ensigns of war. Arrived before the palace, they cried out: "deliver us the traitors, deliver us the murderers of the Tzar!" Peter, his mother, his brother, and the ministers of state, shewed themselves at the porch. Ivan himself addressed the insurgents. They perceived that there was no cause for their revolt; but nevertheless, they exclaimed: "it is time for us to choose the sovereign that we prefer." Then, saluting Ivan with their spears, they rushed into the palace, where they found, in a chapel, Aphanasi-Naritchkin, brother of the Tzaritsa; they threw him from the window, and their companions received him

upon the points of their swords and spears. Bands of this furious soldiery roved about the city of Moscow, committing the greatest excesses, and putting to death several of the principal officers of state.

Encouraged by the success of their revolt, the Strelitzes considered themselves masters of the state; they entrusted the government to Sophia, and appointed that Ivan and Peter should share the throne. Sophia had no objection to a burden which is always light to ambition, while no one had the courage to resist a daring and powerful militia that were covered with blood, and still thirsted for its effusion.

The two Tzars were crowned by the patriarch on the 15th of June, 1682; but it was Sophia who reigned. This princess, to mark her gratitude to the Strelitzes, and to merit their continued favour, gave them, for their commander, Prince Ivan-Khovanski, whom they loved. Khovanski distributed among them the possessions of the boyards whom they had murdered, and shared with them considerable sums that he had extracted from the treasure of the crown.

Ivan, seated upon the throne, but incapable of government, abandoned to his sister the reins of empire. Peter, delivered without constraint to all the caprice and impetuosity of youth, chose for his companions men without birth, consideration, or prudence, who allured him into all the follies of vice. Most of his favourites were foreigners, who not only corrupted his manners, but rendered him odious to the nobles and people, by teaching him to pour contempt upon their customs and forms; at the same time, they gave him his first ideas of the arts, the government, and the military discipline of polished nations. Thus, that which seemed to threaten the ruin of the prince, and inspired the adherents of Sophia with the hope of excluding him from the throne, was the instrument of his grandeur, and the foundation of his fame.

Khovanski owed his elevation to Sophia; but, proud of the favour of his soldiers, he neglected that of his protectress and friend. She perceived with indignation that these fierce pretorians watched her steps, sought to *penetrate into* her secrets, and surrounded her with their

spies. She determined, therefore, either to usurp the supreme power, or perish. The court was at Kolomna. A placard was affixed to the gates of the palace, which announced that Khovanski, his son, and the Strelitzes, had conspired the death of the Tzars, of their family, of the boyards, and of the patriarch. This placard was probably fabricated by Miloslavski, who had quarrelled with Khovanski, and declared himself his mortal foe. Natalia was alarmed, and the court sympathised in her fears; they hastened from imaginary danger, and the strong walls of the Monastery of the Trinity were scarcely sufficient to calm and restore their minds. Couriers were dispatched to Moscow, and to the most distant towns, to fetch the ministers, the officers of the court, and the troops in which the greatest confidence could be placed. Khovanski and his son were also sent for, under pretence that their services were required; but, upon their arrival, they were beheaded without even the form of a trial, or an announcement of their crime.

The Strelitzes, informed of the fate of their leader, determined, with one consent, to avenge his death; but when they heard of the means which had been employed for the defence of the monastery, they abandoned themselves to despair and death. They threw themselves at the foot of the altars, and received, with tears of penitence, the last sacraments of the church. They embraced their wives and children, bathed them with their tears, and bade them a final adieu. They then proceeded to the monastery, bearing the instruments of their punishment, ropes, billets, and axes. The court, at beholding them, was melted into pity, and, with the exception of a few of their leaders, forgave their crime.

Delivered from internal revolt, Russia enjoyed a state of peace and prosperity under Sophia, and her favourite minister Galitzin. This man, distinguished alike by his talents and birth, was keeper of the great seal, minister for foreign affairs, and lieutenant-general of Novgorod. War being soon after declared against the Turks, Galitzin commanded the Russian army in person, but gained few honours in the field.

Peter, having arrived at the age of sixteen, and being impatient to exercise his talents for the throne, beheld

in his sister an obstacle to his ambition, which he determined to remove.

It was a custom in Russia that, at certain festivals, the Sovereigns should assist at the processions, arrayed in all the splendours of supreme power. On one of these occasions, Sophia appeared with all the badges of empire: Peter arrived after her. Indignant at the state which she displayed, he bade her retire, and not being able to overcome her obstinate resistance, he withdrew from the church and the city, and shut himself up at Kolomna, followed by all those who participated and desired to cherish his resentment.

Soon after this quarrel about etiquette, Peter being at the country town of Preobrajenski, it was announced to him that the Strelitzes had again raised the standard of revolt, and that they acted either under the direction or countenance of Sophia. Natalia, alarmed for the safety of her son, conducted him to the monastery, and sent for troops from the neighbouring towns.

Sophia, having learnt what was passing, expressed the greatest horror at the revolt. Knowing that she was suspected of having afforded it her sanction, she set out for the monastery, in order to face her accusers, and offer her defence; but she was met on the road, and ordered to return to Moscow. Despairing of success in propitiating her brother, she endeavoured to retire into Poland, but was prevented, and conveyed to a monastery, where she spent the remainder of her days.

Sophia, who thus fell a victim to her ambition, was a woman of extraordinary talents, and cultivated taste. A tragedy is preserved, which she composed amidst the intrigues of war and the cares of state, and which would do honour to the literary writing of any age.

Peter returned to Moscow, and his brother readily transferred to him the supreme power. From this time, he alone bore the name of Tzar. Ivan died in 1696.

PETER I.

CHAP. I.

Birth and early Life—His attention to Naval and Military Affairs—Chinese Embassy—War with the Turks.

PETER, surnamed the Great, was born in the palace of the Tzar, in the Kremlin, May the 30th, 1672. From his infancy he was subject to epileptic fits, an hereditary disease which affected him through life, and by which the natural ferocity of his temper was often increased. He was very imperfectly educated, not only through the general defects of instruction in Russia, but likewise through the arts of Sophia, who surrounded him with every indulgence that could enfeeble and deprave his mind. The force of his genius, however, was not to be subdued. In the midst of juvenile riot and dissipation, he imbibed a knowledge of military affairs, and employed his mind on those vast schemes that were to form the occupation and glory of his life.

During the regency of Sophia, Peter principally resided at Preobrajenski, a village in the vicinity of Moscow. In this retirement, he admitted to his company and service a number of youths of his own age, most of whom were sons either of boyards or of the officers of his house. These were called the Tzar's diverters or playmates, and were formed into a juvenile regiment under the command of Le Fort.* Peter himself, wishing

* Le Fort was born at Geneva, in 1652, and designed by his parents for commerce. But in consequence of his follies, he involved himself in debt, and fled to Geneva, where he entered the army as a cadet. After remaining there some time, he passed into Holland, enlisted under an officer who was raising soldiers for Tzar Alexey, and thus came to Archangel. Alexey in the mean time deceased, and no further notice was taken of the foreign levies to which Le Fort belonged. Upon this he proceeded to Moscow, where he speedily acquired the Russian language, and became secretary to the Danish ambassador. His imposing figure, and attractive manners, procured him access to the most distinguished families, and he soon married a young lady with a large fortune. In these circumstances, he found an opportunity of making himself known to the Tzar, who being charmed with his acquirements and address, became his *avowed patron and friend.*

to set an example of military subordination, is said to have entered this corps as a common drummer, and never to have received promotion but as a soldier of fortune.

Sophia and the court of the Strelitzes sometimes assisted at the exercise of the youthful troop, which gradually increased, until, in the year 1690, it was divided into two regiments. The first was called Preobrajenski, from the name of the village where it was formed, and the other Semenovski.*

Peter caused a citadel to be erected, in order to instruct his soldiers in plans of attack and defence. The fortress was besieged according to the rules of military art, and the Tzar was a private in the camp of the besiegers. Voltaire asserts, that instead of the image of war, a real combat ensued; that many soldiers were slain, a great number wounded, and that Le Fort himself, who commanded the attack, received a considerable hurt. At length, after a long defence, and various actions, the place was taken by assault.

As soon as Peter became sole master of the empire, he directed his attention to the improvement of the army. He had learned, by experience, how little dependence was to be placed on the Strelitzes; and as these regiments were entirely without discipline, he resolved to place himself in a condition to disband them with safety. For this purpose, he commissioned Le Fort and Gordon, a Scotch adventurer, to raise regiments, which, in their whole constitution, dress, and military exercises, should be formed on the model of other European troops.

While Peter was thus occupied in reforming his army, his attention was accidentally turned to the formation of a fleet. Being at a pleasure-house of his father's, at Ismailof, he saw an English boat lying neglected. His ever-active curiosity was excited; and having called Timerman, his master in fortification, he demanded the reason of its peculiar construction. Timerman replied that it was designed to sail against the wind. The Tzar, struck with surprise, desired that it might be tried. Brandt, the builder, who had been

* The name of another village in the same vicinity.

invited from Holland by Alexey, but who was now living in obscurity and neglect, was instantly summoned, and having repaired the vessel, launched it on the river Yausa, where he sailed in it, to the astonishment of the delighted Tzar. Peter now ventured to embark himself, and under Brandt's instructions, soon learnt to manage the vessel. After several experiments upon the Yausa, he ordered a yacht to be built on the Moskwa, in which he sailed as far as Colomna. Animated with success, he employed Brandt in constructing vessels with guns, on the lake Pereislavl, and in the following year several were launched. The death of Brandt, which soon after followed, seemed to check the increase of his fleet, but did not interrupt his expeditions on the lake, which he pursued with unabated ardour.

Disputes having arisen between the Chinese and Russians, the former nation dispatched an embassy from Pekin, to treat of peace. This embassy was accompanied by an army of 10,000 men; and having arrived at Nertchinsk, encamped in the midst of an extensive field. A tent was erected for the ministers of the two nations, and divided into two apartments of equal size. The apartment of the Chinese was destitute of all ornament; while that of the Russians was decorated with unusual splendour and pomp.

After tedious and protracted discussions, it was agreed that the Gorbitza should form the boundary of the two empires; and the plenipotentiaries ratified the treaty with a solemn oath.

The first war in which Peter engaged, was with the Turks. In order to ensure success, he caused a fleet to be built on the Voronetz, which might enter the Black Sea by the Don; but impatient to try the fortune of his arms, he refused to wait for its completion, and by this act of imprudence, defeated the object of his campaign. He divided his force, into two armies. The one, composed of 100,000 men, was confided to Sheremetef, who was to follow the course of the Dnieper, and keep the Tartars in check. The other, destined for the siege of Azof, was commanded by Cheïn, and encouraged by the presence of the Tzar. Its first exploit was the capture of two towers, which defended

the passage of the Don, and were filled with ammunition and stores. This army next succeeded in repelling a sally of the besieged, but this was all the success which it could procure. Azof was well supplied with provisions, and contained a garrison of 6,000 men. The Russians, having no vessels, were unable to attack the city except by land; while succours were poured into it from the sea. They attempted to make an assault, but were repulsed, and compelled to raise the siege with the loss of 30,000 men. Peter was excited, rather than discouraged, by difficulties. He obtained from the emperor Leopold, the States General, and the Elector of Brandenburg, engineers, artillery-men, and sailors, and engaged the Kalmucs as auxiliaries against the Tartars. The army commanded by Cheïn, appeared before Azof, at the commencement of the spring. The fleet was composed of two vessels of war; the one embarked in by the Tzar, and the other by Le Fort; of four galleys, two galliots, and four fire-vessels.

The works before the city were raised with military art, and for the first time the Russians made a regular assault. The Turks, driven from their exterior fortifications, kept themselves shut up in their garrison, while their fleet could attempt nothing in their defence. The ditches of the city were filled with the bodies of the slain; a rampart was already raised to the height of the walls, and an order given for a general assault. The governor, perceiving that longer resistance would be vain, agreed to surrender, without any of the honours of war. Peter, in order to secure his conquests, and command the straits of Caffa, fortified Azof, and prepared to build a formidable fleet. He even hoped to expel the Turks and Tartars from the Crimea, and establish a commerce with Persia, through Circassia.

The Tzar, on his return from Azof, appointed a triumphal procession into Moscow, similar to the triumphal entries of the ancient Romans. Le Fort, as admiral, and Cheïn, as commander-in-chief of the land forces, were the principal personages in this splendid pageant; while Peter concealing himself among the crowd, declared that as he had not yet any rank in the army, he wished to teach his nobles, that military honours must

be deserved before they are enjoyed. A medal was struck, having on one side this inscription: *Peter I., Emperor of Muscovy, always august:* and on the other, *Azof,* with these words: *Victor by thunder and the waves.*

CHAP. II.

Travels—Revolt and Punishment of the Strelitzes—Innovations.

Peter, in preparing a fleet for the Euxine, felt mortified that none but foreign workmen could be employed in its construction. He therefore sent sixty young Russians into Italy, Germany, and Holland, to learn shipbuilding, naval tactics, and military discipline. But not content with prescribing to others the acquirement of knowledge, for the benefit of the nation, he determined to travel himself into foreign countries, that he might study their respective improvements, and transfer them into his own. Russia had beheld several of her monarchs invite persons from different parts of Europe, to promote her civilization and refinement; but it was reserved for Peter to descend from a throne into voluntary exile, that he might enrich her with the arts and inventions of distant lands.

The Tzar imparted his design to his boyards, many of whom it greatly displeased. The Russians regarded intercourse with foreign nations as criminal, and the clergy increased this prejudice by the authority of the scriptures, which forbade the chosen people of God to hold communion with the gentiles.

In this agitated state of affairs, a conspiracy was formed against the life of the Tzar, the particulars of the defeat of which are thus detailed:

The conspirators met one day at noon, at the house of Sukanin their chief, intending to remain there till midnight, and then set fire to a house adjacent to the Tzar's palace, that when the Tzar, according to his

custom, should appear to give directions for arresting its progress, they might assassinate him in the crowd. But, two of these conspirators, being smitten with remorse, revealed their feelings to each other, and obtained permission of the rest to retire to their homes till midnight, that they might be more alert for action at that time. Instead, however, of fulfilling their proposal, they repaired to Peter, and disclosed to him the whole of the horrid design. The Tzar immediately wrote to the captain of one of the regiments, commanding him to invest Sukanin's house in perfect silence, at ten o'clock. In the hurry of the moment, he wrote *eleven*, instead of ten. He himself proceeded, soon after ten, to the neighbourhood of the house, in the expectation of finding all in readiness; but was greatly surprised at not seeing the guard. Hearing a great noise he ventured in, and suddenly found himself in the midst of the conspirators. He contrived, however, to repress his astonishment, and informed them, that having observed the house more than commonly lighted, he had supposed they were met for convivial intercourse, and had entered for the pleasure of sharing in their cups. Each of them now drinks to the health of the Tzar, who with an appearance of cordiality, pledges them in return. The time passes in mutual concealment. At length, one of the conspirators says in a low tone: *It is time. Not yet,* replies Sukanin. Peter hears these words: he rises, and with a fierce look, exclaims: "If it is not time for thee to consummate the crime, it is time for me to inflict the punishment." The conspirators tremble at the voice of their master, and lose all presence of mind. He commands a part of them to assist him and his attendant in binding the rest, and is obeyed. His guard arrives,* and the traitors falling at his feet, avow their crime. They are immediately put to a cruel and ignominious death; while their conspiracy and arrest are graven upon tablets of iron.

Delivered from danger, Peter determined to hasten his departure. He chose for his ambassadors extraordi-

* Peter, believing that the guard had disobeyed his orders, in coming an hour too late, gave the captain a box on the ear. But he produced the Tzar's order, in which eleven o'clock was plainly written Peter immediately kissed his forehead, and declared him blameless.

nary to Holland, the General Le Fort and Golovin, who had negociated the treaty with the Chinese, and the secretary of state, Voznetzen. They were attended by a retinue of two hundred persons, and the Tzar concealed himself, without title and without quality, in this numerous suite.

The reins of government were confided, during the absence of the prince, to Strechnef and Romodanovski, who, in important affairs, were to take the advice of the principal boyards. The two regiments of guards were charged with the defence of Moscow; to which was joined the battalion of Gordon, who was entrusted with the command of all the troops in the capital.

The embassy first passed into Livonia, where they were treated by the Swedes with marked indignity and neglect. Instead of being received on the frontiers with the honours due to their rank, they were met by a private gentleman, who had been commissioned to act as a spy on their proceedings. On their arrival at Riga, they were forbidden to enter the town: compelled to find lodgings in the suburbs, they had no sooner entered on their possession, than they beheld them surrounded with guards. The number of these was doubled in the town; piquets were placed without the fortifications, and even patrols were appointed, as though an enemy had been encamped beneath the walls.

The Russians, at the return of spring, were desirous to provide for their journey, by the purchase of vehicles in the town. The Governor commanded that only six of them should enter at a time, that they should remain only two hours, and that they should keep at a distance from the fortifications. To ensure obedience to his commands, he appointed an escort of soldiers to attend them, and directed that the Tzar should be watched with the nicest circumspection and care.

Peter felt an anxious desire to examine the fortifications of the town; and for the attainment of his object, he feigned an intention to visit the Dutch vessels which lay in the port. On pursuing the road which conducted to the harbour, and which in several places bordered upon the counterscarp, he was stopped by the piquets of the governor, who threatened to shoot him,

if he attempted to pass. In consequence, however, of pleading, that there was no other road to the vessels, he was allowed to proceed. But the next day the governor informed Le Fort, the chief of the embassy, that if in future any one of the suite should dare to contravene his orders, he should be immediately shot. The number of the guards was increased in the quarter of the Russians; and it was even hinted to Peter, that the Swedish authorities had formed a design against his life. Under these circumstances, the Tzar crossed the Dwina in a hired bark, and was landed at Mittau, where he waited for the arrival of his ambassadors, whom he had left at Riga, to repair their equipage, and pursue their route.

On its arrival at Mittau and Konigsberg, the embassy was received with great pomp. Peter was highly gratified with the intemperance of the German court, and in one of its revels, drew his sword to stab his favourite Le Fort. But when the paroxysm of rage had subsided, he begged Le Fort's pardon, and candidly averred, that though he wished to correct his subjects, he had not been able to correct himself. Leaving Brandenburg, he pursued his route through the north of Germany, and arrived at Amsterdam five days before his embassy. He remained some days in that city, examining with curious eye, the activity of an industrious and commercial people. He then repaired to Sardam, where he wrought in the forges, rope-walks, and saw-mills, and enrolled himself among the shipwrights under the name of Peter Mikailof.

His time was divided between Sardam and Amsterdam. At the former, he learnt the whole process of ship-building, and assisted in the construction of a frigate, which he dispatched to Archangel; at the latter, he was instructed in geography, anatomy, and other branches of natural science. Having quitted his labours at Sardam, he removed to the Hague, where, as a private individual, he attended an audience of his own ambassadors, a ceremony which was the more brilliant, as the plenipotentiaries of most of the states of Europe had assembled to negociate a peace. In January, 1698, he sailed for England, in a royal yacht, and under the convoy of three vessels of war.

In England, Peter acquired the science,* as well as practised the art of naval architecture He lodged near a dock-yard, at Deptford, and lived as he had done in Sardam. He visited different manufactures and workshops, performing various mechanical operations with his own hands. The art of clock and watch making, attracted his particular attention; and he attained the knowledge of astronomy. He engaged in his service, Perry, the engineer, and Ferguson, the mathematician, who introduced the study of arithmetic into Russia.† He made an agreement with a London company, to send tobacco to Moscow. The Russians had so abused the smoking of this herb, at the commencement of the century, as to infect with it, the palace of the Tzar, and the mansions of the great; and had even filled the churches with its fumes. The patriarch had forbidden it, and to add weight to his prohibition, had declared it to be an unclean substance; but Peter, being allured by a present from the merchants, compelled his subjects to return to its use.

The King of England, whom Peter had often seen at the Hague, entertained him with a naval sham-fight, and presented him with a splendid yacht, which was named the Royal Transport. In this vessel, Peter returned to Holland, having with him many naval officers, thirty pilots, and as many surgeons; two hundred and fifty cannoniers, and three hundred mechanics. This colony of skilful men was conveyed in the Royal Transport to Archangel; while those engaged in Holland, passed through the Swedish provinces, on the Baltic.

Peter, with his ambassadors, passed from Holland to Vienna, that he might witness the military discipline of the Germans, and converse with the emperor, who had entered into alliance with him against the Turks.

The Tzar was even preparing to visit Italy, but was diverted from his design by the news of a sedition in Russia. Four regiments of the Strelitzes, composing

* The Dutch are said to have had a very defective acquaintance with the theory of ship-building.

† Before this time, calculations were made in Russia, by means of strung balls.

a corps of 10,000 men, had been commanded to serve on the frontiers of Poland, under the order of Prince Romodanovski: these rose *en masse*, deposed their chiefs, elected new ones in their stead, and commenced their march towards Moscow. The general, who was unable to repress their sedition, had only time afforded him to dispatch a courier to the capital, with the news of their approach. The family of the Tzar took refuge in the monastery of the Trinity. Chein and Gordon, at the head of 2,000 infantry and 6,000 horse, met the rebels on the road; and, after having in vain exhorted them to submission, defeated them with great slaughter.

Peter, on his arrival at Moscow, held in his palace a court of inquiry, or rather of inquisition. The most exquisite tortures were inflicted in his presence, to extort evidence against those whom he suspected of correspondence with the rebels, and of a desire to restore Sophia to the throne. Some of the criminals were frequently scourged; others had their shoulders dislocated by a cord and pulley, and in that state received the knout; and many, even after enduring this punishment, were roasted over a slow fire, the raw and bleeding parts being exposed to the flame.

A stranger, at that time the secretary of the German embassy at Moscow, relates, that on the first day of execution, five heads fell by the stroke of the Tzar, and that, a few days after, a greater number was severed from the wretched criminals by the same hand.

Printz, who was ambassador from the Prussian court, at the time of the executions, informs us, that at a grand repast which was given him by Peter I., that Prince caused twenty of the Strelitzes to be brought to him from prison, and that at every bumper which he quaffed, he cut off the head of one of these unfortunate men. He even proposed to the ambassador, that he should excercise his skill in this horrid butchery.

The day of the sixth execution was remarkable both for the number of the victims, and the dignity of the executioners. A great number of balks were placed as a continuous block, on the square, and on these 330 rebels were beheaded. All these were of the order of *nobility*, and they were all sacrificed by noble hands.

The judges were obliged to execute the sentences which they had pronounced. Each of the boyards and grandees had his victim allotted him. Prince Romodanovski struck off four heads; and Menchikof made his horrid boast, that he had excelled others in this work of destruction. The greater part of the executioners being novices in their cruel office, struck the victims with a trembling, and therefore an uncertain hand, and thus increased and prolonged their tortures. Peter, elevated on a lofty seat, beheld this scene of carnage with a tearless eye.

Thus perished the chiefs of the revolt. The most criminal of their accomplices expired slowly on the wheel: nine hundred, at the least, were hanged at the different gates, and along the walls of the city. Thirty gibbets were erected before the monastery in which Sophia was confined, and from these were suspended 200 of the criminals. Three of them had prepared an address to this princess, in which they implored her to resume the reins of government; they were suspended before the window of her room, the middle one holding in his hand the obnoxious request. The unfortunate Sophia could not behold the light, without seeing, at the same time, the unfortunate men who thus perished in her cause.

All the revolters discovered the utmost firmness at the approach of death. One of them was about to lay his head upon the plank which served as a block; the Tzar, who was present, obstructed his passage: "Take care, Prince," said he to him, "it is for me that place is destined."

These numerous executions took place in the month of October, the season at which a strong frost commences under the climate of Moscow The corpses of the rebels remained in the places where they had been sacrificed to the vengeance of the prince. The heads of those who had been decapitated were placed by the side of the trunks to which they had belonged. The people and the court, for five whole months, had the horrors of this spectacle daily before them. It was impossible to enter the city, or to traverse the squares, except in the midst of wheels, of gibbets, and of corpses variously disfigured.

Only four regiments of Strelitzes were concerned in

Moscovites, the first of September, was ordered to begin in January. This change which was introduced in 1700, was celebrated with great festivities; but it was not approved by the majority of the nation, who believing that the world was created on the 1st of September, maintained that the year should always commence on that day.

The Russians, in affixing their signatures, were accustomed to employ only their Christian names, with the addition of such diminutives as are commonly applied to children. This usage occasioned great inconvenience and confusion; the Tzar therefore interposed his authority to abolish it, and commanded them to sign with their family names.

Peter made himself absolute master of the church, as well as of the state. The office of patriarch was abolished, and its revenues turned into the coffers of the empire. The rigour of fasting was relaxed; and no person employed in the public service, or under the age of fifty, was permitted to enter into the monastic life.

From the consideration of these various innovations and reform which Peter introduced among his subjects, we turn to his war with Sweden,—a war in which he was engaged for twenty years, in which he experienced the most surprising reverses, displayed all the fertility and vigour of his genius, triumphed over the greatest warrior of his age, and added to his dominion a large kingdom.

CHAP. III.

War with Sweden.

The Tzar, by an armistice which he concluded with the Turks, in 1699, secured the possession of Azof, and some forts in its vicinity. This acquisition, however important, only served to inflame his ambition. He determined to create an extensive naval, as well as military force; to provide avenues of commerce with the *es of Europe*; and to exalt Russia in the scale of

civilized nations. To effect these designs, ports on the Baltic appeared indispensable; and as these must be obtained from Sweden, he determined to unite with Poland in the prosecution of the war which she had commenced against that state.

Charles XI. King of Sweden, died in1697, and his son Charles XII. not yet sixteen years old, ascended the throne. He was supposed to be a youth of ordinary talents, and from his impatience of restraint, unfit to govern. As the opportunity seemed propitious, the King of Denmark, Frederick IV. Augustus, King of Poland, and the Tzar of Russia, conspired to effect his ruin. The Swedes were greatly alarmed; and some of the counsellors of the young Prince proposed to avert the storm by negociation; but he rejected the proposal with firmness. "I will go," said he, "and attack the first of them who declares himself my foe; and when I have conquered him, I shall be able to strike terror into the rest." His actions corresponded with his words. In March, 1700, Denmark opened the war, by an invasion of Holstein, and in the following August, was compelled to make peace with Charles. This Prince now turned his arms against his second enemy, the King of Poland, and victory accompanied him at every step. It was at this junction, that Peter turned his arms against the Swedish monarch, and laid siege to Narva.

The Russian army was numerous, but ill-disciplined, and dissensions reigned among its chiefs. Peter's presence indeeed, preserved among them the appearance of union; but on his departure for the purpose of raising new levies, they quarrelled without restraint. Charles attacked them with 8,000 men, fatigued by a long march, and entirely routed them; officers, men, arms, stores, and provisions, all falling into his hands. But this prince was more skilful in achieving, than in improving, his conquests. If he had pursued the flying Russians into the heart of the country, he might probably have effected what he afterwards in vain proposed —to dictate terms of peace to Peter, in Moscow; for the dread of him and his soldiers, who were regarded as magicians in Russia,* would have prepared his way.

* The Russians, in their public prayers to St. Nicholas, implored assistance against the enchantments of the Swedes.

But the victor at Narva resolved first to humble Augustus, to deprive him of his crown, and then to attack Peter, whom he confidently expected to defeat. "If I remain fifty years in Poland," said he, "I will not quit it, till I have driven the king from the throne." To this arrogant declaration he stedfastly adhered; and thus gave the Tzar time to recruit his armies, and prepare for the field.

Ere Peter could arrive at Narva with his reinforcements, he received news of the entire defeat of his army; but his courage was not to be daunted by misfortune. He determined to repair his losses by new and vigorous efforts. "I know well," said he, "the Swedes will long be superior; but at length they will teach us to vanquish them." He collected the remains of his scattered army, levied new regiments, and repaired to Moscow, to found cannon, as all his artillery had fallen into the hands of the Swedes. He caused the superfluous bells of the churches and monasteries to be melted, and justified the sacrilege, by declaring that it was only the holy metal that could serve against the Swedish magicians.

Peter renewed his alliance with Augustus at Birzen, in 1701. This Polish monarch engaged to furnish 50,000 troops, to be hired of different princes, and to be paid by the Tzar, who, on his side, agreed to send 50,000 Russians into Poland, to learn the art of war, and pay Augustus 3,000,000 rix-dollars in two years.

This treaty was rendered abortive by the rapid advance of the Swedish monarch, who passing the Duna, in the face of the Saxons, totally defeated them, and made himself master of all Courland and Lithuania. He entered victorious into Birzen, where a little before his enemies had consulted his ruin. While at this place, he conceived the design of dethroning the King of Poland. One day at table, observing extreme abstinence, and appearing absorbed in thought, a German colonel said, loud enough to be heard, "the repasts of the Tzar and the King of Poland, when here, were somewhat different from those of your majesty." "Yes," said the king, raising himself, "and I have more easily disturbed the digestion of them."

But if the successes of Charles deprived Peter of all benefit from his allies, they afforded him leisure for the prosecution of his plans of conquest and reform. Patkul, the succcessor of Le Fort, was employed to discipline the troops, and encouragement was given to Germans, Polish, and Lithuanian officers; and even to soldiers, disposed to serve in the Russian armies. Ships were built at Archangel, Olonetz, and Voronetz; flocks and shepherds were procured from Poland; mines were opened in Siberia; manufactories of iron, linen, and paper, were established, and a printing-press set up in the capital of the empire. The Tzar seemed to multiply himself, in hastening the preparation of the war. One while he was seen at Voronetz, urging the progress of the fleet; at another piloting the vessels from the dock-yards of Olonetz to the Baltic. If a ship was to be laid on the stocks or launched, it was performed under his inspection. If the Swedes threatened Archangel, he appeared on the shores of the White Sea, prevented their descent, and provided against their future attacks. To-day, he appeared at Pleskof and Novgorod, actively engaged in reviewing his troops; to-morrow, he was found at Moscow, dispatching his commands to all the provinces of his empire.

Augustus was now obliged to withdraw all his troops from Poland, and Charles entered it in triumph. This prince supposed that the Russians, humbled by their defeat at Neva, would fear to encounter the Swedes. They dared, however, to ravage Livonia, and under the conduct of Sheremetef, to advance against Schlipenhach, one of the generals of Charles.

Charles had left Schlipenhach at Darfur, with a body of seven thousand men. Sheremetef marched against him with an army of eight thousand, and came upon him with such surprise, that he had no time to prepare for battle. Repulsed at the first attack, because his artillery had not yet arrived, the Russian general rallied his soldiers, and after a dreadful combat of four hours, remained victor on the field. He slew three thousand of the enemies in battle, put the rest to flight, and made himself master of all their baggage.

In order to encourage the nation, the victory was

celebrated in the capital, by an extraordinary discharge of artillery and fire-works. Sheremetef was elevated to the rank of field-marshal, and decorated with the order of St. Andrew.

The following year saw the Russians victorious on the Peipus and the Ladoga, a fresh proof that the Swedes were not invincible by sea. Sheremetef sustained the glory of his recent success, by a second defeat of the Swedish general; but it must be conceded that the Russians were greatly superior in numbers. It is related, that the Tzar, when informed of this victory, exclaimed, "Thank God, we are now able to conquer the Swedes, when we are two to one: perhaps, we shall beat them one day with equal numbers."

The Russian conqueror laid siege to Marienburg, a small town situate on a lake. Already the place had surrendered; already the Russians had taken possession of their conquest, when two of the citizens effected its ruin. These wretches threw fire into the powder-magazine, perished in the explosion, and involved a great number of the Russians, as well as their fellow citizens in destruction. Sheremetef, enraged at this tragical event, broke the capitulation, kept the garrison, and the inhabitants, prisoners of war, and razed the town to its foundation. Among the captives taken on this occasion, was the youthful widow of a soldier slain at the siege, and who afterwards became the consort of the Tzar.*

The siege of Noteburg † followed. A new Russian fleet which had been constructed on a branch of the Neva, compelled the fleet of Charles to return under Vyburg, in the gulf of Finland. Sheremetef commanded the land forces; while Peter served as a captain of bombadiers, and was prodigal both of fatigue and his life.

The Swedes supported their reputation for valour; but after a vigorous defence, were compelled to surrender to the Russian chief. There were found in the town, thirty-nine pieces of artillery, and a great quantity of every description of arms. Peter caused the fortification to be repaired, and the ramparts to be

* Catherine, whose eventful history is well known.

† This town was built on an island, in the midst of the Neva, the place where that river flows out of the Ladoga.

renewed. He named the place Schlüsselburg, from a German word, which signifies *Key;* because it was, in fact, a key to the conquests which he had planned. He gave the government of it to Menchikof, and conferred upon the most distinguished officers, land and medals of gold.

The capital beheld a second time, the spectacle of a triumph. The Swedish prisoners followed the march of their victors; while the standards and the cannon, taken from the enemy, served to increase the interest of the scene.

In the beginning of 1703, for the purpose of exposing those who complained of his innovations, Peter invited the nobility to the marriage of his chief buffoon, and caused it to be celebrated in the ancient form. The gentlemen were kept at a sacred distance from the tables of the ladies. The guests, dressed in the antique style of Russia, were fettered with garments of which they had lost the use. All the dances were purely Russian; the dishes were prepared and served according to the ancient fashion; and instead of wine, hydromel was presented and drunk This beverage particularly displeased the guests, who were accustomed to the most agreeable liquors; but the Tzar merely replied with a sarcastic smile: "this was the custom among your fathers; old customs are always best."

In the same spirit of reform, in which Peter presided at these sports, he instituted schools of mathematics and astronomy, which had long been confounded with astrology and magic; and erected a spacious hospital, in which the poor were occupied in useful labour and arts.

The Tzar, by the conquest of Schlüsselburg, was master of the head of the Neva; but he found that he must subdue Nienchantz, if he would command the whole of its course to the Baltic. The place was strong, and defended itself with vigour; but Sheremetef, after a siege of five days, carried it by assault. The conquest of this small town, situate in the midst of a malignant and desert marsh, appears an event which history should hardly deign to record. It was, however, one of the most important occurrences in the life of

Peter Ist; for it enabled him to attain the end of all his previous labours—a port on the Baltic.

Peter called a council of war, to decide on the re-establishment of the fortifications of this place; but it was pronounced small, badly fortified by nature, and too far from the gulf to deserve either repair or defence. At length, after many days' discussion and research, a small island was discovered nearer to the mouth of the river, which was deemed fit for the erection of a fortress. Only fifteen days had elapsed, from the capture of Nienchantz, when the labours of the new town were commenced. It was called St. Petersburg, in honour of St. Peter, whose name was borne by its founder. Thus were laid the foundations of one of the finest cities of Europe, in a place where hitherto nothing had been seen but stagnant waters, a putrid verdure, and scattered huts, the retreat of bears and wolves.

The obstacles which nature opposed to the progress of the work, only served to display the inflexible decision of the Tzar. Workmen without number were summoned from all parts of the empire, and perished in multitudes by toil and disease. Others succeed to their places, and share their fate. The Tzar is reminded that his new city will be raised on the heads of his subjects, but his resolution is fixed, and he scorns to relent. The marshes are filled with earth brought from afar; numerous canals open a salutary course to the stagnant floods; vast forests of firs that exhaled pestilence are felled, and their torn-up roots provide a place for the foundation of palaces and temples. Nienchanz, razed to the ground, furnishes the new city with inhabitants. The nobility of the capital and the province, merchants and workmen, are commanded to increase their number. They arrive in despair; but being accustomed, through necessity, to their new residence, they labour to embellish it, and attract new inhabitants. The first buildings of wood are succeeded by edifices of grandeur and taste; and the city rises a monument of Art, in the midst of nature's desolation and wilds.

In the mean time, the King of Sweden pursued his career of victory. His general expelled from Lithuania,

20,000 Russians, who had been sent to the help of Augustus; and as the Poles, divided into factions, made no resistance, he entered Warsaw in triumph, declaring that he would not make peace till another king should be elected. Victory succeeded victory; the crown of Poland was declared vacant; Stanislaus Leczinsky was raised to the precarious dignity, and Poland was entirely subdued. Augustus, however, did not resign his kingdom in despair. Being reinforced by 9000 Russians, he retook Warsaw, and nearly surprised the new King, who was dwelling at ease in the city, while Charles was fighting in his cause. But this reduction of Warsaw was amongst the last advantages gained by Augustus in the war. His troops were now composed of Saxon recruits, and undisciplined Poles. Charles and Stanislaus advanced with their victorious army; the Saxons fled, and the towns for several miles round, sent in their submission. Augustus was again obliged to leave Poland, and fortify the capital of Saxony, which he expected every moment to see invested by his foes.

While Charles achieved victories, and gave away kingdoms, the Tzar made important conquests. Dorpat surrendered, and Narva was taken by storm. The Russian soldiers, masters of this place, abandoned themselves to the most cruel excesses. Peter, on this occasion, displayed a humanity which but too seldom adorned his character. He ran in every direction to prevent plunder and massacre. Having, with his own hand, killed two of his soldiers who had disobeyed his commands, he repaired to the inn, where the citizens had taken refuge, and laid his sword upon the table, saying unto them:—"It is not with the blood of the inhabitants that this sword is stained; but with that of the Russians, which I have shed to save your lives."

The Russians next assailed Ivan-Gorod, which the river alone separated from Narva. The governor was unable to resist; he admitted the victor, and the garrison marched out with their arms.

The brilliant exploits of this campaign furnished occasion for a third triumphal entry into Moscow. Peter advanced Menchikof to the rank of major-general,

decorated him with the title of Prince, and confided to him the government of the province of Ingria.

The Tzar, by his patrimony, held dominion over a part of the shores of the Caspian Sea; by his conquests, he extended his sceptre over the lakes Ladoga and Peipus, and the gulf of Finland. He was desirous to open a communication with Persia from his new city, that thus he might carry on a trade with Asia, as well as Europe. A plan which was suggested to him by a merchant, secured this important object. Vessels entered from the Neva, into the lake Ladoga. Thence they could ascend the Volkhof, enter into the Ilmen, and pass into the Moskwa, which receives its waters. This river, near its source, is only a league distant from the Tver, which empties itself into the Volga, from which there is an entrance into the Caspian Sea. In order, therefore, to join this sea to the Baltic, it was only necessary to cut a canal, which should connect the Moskwa with the Tver. This was the plan which the merchant formed, and which the Tzar executed.

Peter designed to carry his arms into the centre of Livonia; but in order to free himself from the annoyance of the Swedes, he was required to expel them from Courland, which was occupied by Levenhaupt. Sheremetef had orders to sally from Polotsk, and give him battle. Fortune on this occasion was unfavourable to the Russians. Their infantry was defeated, their cavalry took to flight, and their artillery was abandoned to the Swedes.

Peter, informed of the defeat of his general, hastened to his relief. Levenhaupt abandoned Courland, and fell back to Riga; while the Tzar made himself master of Mittau, after a siege of fifteen days.

The conquest of Mittau was followed by a revolt in the south. The inhabitants of Astrachan, in common with other subjects of Russia, had been ordered to assume the German dress. But, far from the capital, how could they find tailors to conform their garments to the pattern sent them by their prince? Besides, was it proper, that subjects, in comparative poverty, should bear the expense of the new mode, merely to gratify *his caprice*? They excused themselves to the governor,

but he treated their excuses as acts of rebellion, and caused many of them to be arrested, and punished. —This was the rigour of a tyrant, and an insurrection ensued.

Sheremetef was sent to suppress this revolt. The rebels were unable to defend themselves against regular troops. The general, after defeating a feeble resistance, made his entry into Astrachan, and beheld the inhabitants penitent, trembling, and prostrate on the earth. The chiefs of the rebellion and the most criminal of their accomplices were arrested, to the number of more than 300, and sent to Moscow, where they suffered an ignominious death.

Schlüsselburg, having heard in Saxony, that the Swedes had advanced into Great-Poland with an army of 15,000 men, commenced his march to oppose them. Renschild, the Swedish general, met him on the frontiers, and a battle was fought. Three French battalions served against their consent in the Saxony army: these surrendered themselves on the first attack. The rest of the action was less a battle than a slaughter. The artillery of the allies, fallen into the hands of the Swedes, was turned against themselves. Renschild, by express order of his master, gave no quarters to the conquered. The prisoners were massacred in cold blood, three days after the battle, at the point of pikes and bayonets. In this celebrated combat which was fought February 12, 1706, whole regiments of Saxons threw down their arms, and begged for their lives: 6,000 were slain in the field, and 7,000 taken prisoners: 36 pieces of cannon, 11,000 muskets, 40 pairs of colours and standards, with all the Saxon baggage, fell into the hands of the Swedes.

Peter, being on a visit at Kief, heard that the king of Sweden had thrown himself into Saxony, not wishing to allow Augustus a moment's repose. The emperor, the kings of France, of England, of Denmark, and of Prussia, and the elector of Bavaria, sent deputies to Charles, and implored him to spare Saxony from destruction. He, in reply, penetrated into the heart of that unfortunate electorate, passed before Dresden, and arrived at Leipsic. Not content with levying exorbitant

contributions, he permitted his soldiers to live at their discretion with the inhabitants.

Augustus, though courageous at the head of his armies, was filled with dismay, when he heard of the desolation of his estates. He sent two of his ministers to treat with his enemy, purchased peace at the expense of his honour, renounced the throne of Poland and the alliance of Russia, and promised to deliver up Patkul, a privy counsellor of the Tzar, and the ambassador of that prince.

Patkul, without suspicion of personal danger, repaired to the Saxon ministers, and employed all his eloquence, to prevent their concluding the treaty with Charles. They invited him to a private conference during the night, and when he came to it, placed him under arrest. Delivered up to the king of Sweden, he was condemned as a traitor, and broken on the wheel.

Augustus, though in secret treaty with Charles, was obliged to maintain the appearance of war with that prince. He was joined by prince Menchikof, with 30,000 Russians; which obliged him, contrary to his wishes, to engage with Meyerfeldt, who commanded 10,000 men, one half of whom were Swedes. Meyerfeldt, with his countrymen, defeated the enemy's first line, and was on the point of defeating the second, when Stanislaus, with the Poles and Lithuanians, gave way. He then perceived that the battle was lost; but fought with desperation, to avoid the disgrace of a defeat. At last, however, he was subdued by numbers, and compelled to surrender; the whole of his army being taken prisoners, with the exception of general Krassan.

Peter was almost at the same time informed of this distinguished victory, of the retreat of Augustus into Saxony, and of the treaty of that prince with Charles. He believed his presence necessary in Poland. Advancing to Leopold, with 60,000 men, he made himself master of that city, where he convened a diet, and deposed Stanislaus. Poland now became the theatre of a civil war, in which great numbers of the people were butchered, while cities, towns, and villages were laid in ashes by the infuriate rage of both parties. On the appearance of a Swedish army, Peter retired into

Lithuania, declaring that the country was unable to furnish his army with provisions and forage.

Peter, alarmed by the rapid movements of Charles, who had quitted Saxony, and menaced Russia, made overtures for peace; but the Swedish monarch declared that it was only at Moscow he would treat with the Tzar. Peter contented himself with saying: "My brother wishes to play the Alexander, but he will not find in me a Darius."

The ministers of Sweden displayed the same pride as their master. They haughtily announced that the Tzar would never obtain peace, until he should be hurled from the throne. Charles even distributed among his officers the dignities of the Russian Empire. General Sparr dared to boast at Berlin, that he had received from his monarch the patent of the government of Moscow, and had the vanity to accept congratulations on this high appointment.

The haughty conduct of Charles ought not to astonish us. The north trembled before him; the south was filled with apprehensions at his name. The ministers of almost all the princes of Europe visited him in his camp, and flattered his pride. He declared himself the protector of the Protestant interest in Germany, particularly of the emperor's Protestant subjects in Silesia. He desired, or rather commanded, Joseph to renew and confirm to them all the liberties granted by the treaties of Westphalia. The emperor durst not refuse; and upwards of 100 churches were given to the Protestants.

Peter was a stranger to repose. He passed six weeks at Petersburg, superintending the works of the rising capital; set out for Moscow at the beginning of December; and in the month of January, was on his route to Poland, where he visited all the quarters of his troops. He knew that Charles had taken advantage of the ice to pass the Vistula; he immediately repaired to Grodno, and left behind him 2,000 men, for the defence of the bridge.

The Tzar commanded his generals not to hazard a battle in Poland, but always to retreat, and spread desolation in their route. Knowing that Charles would

always advance, as the Russians retired, he hoped to ruin the Swedish army by fatigue, disease, and the rigour of the clime.

Peter was at his new capital, when he was informed by a courier from Menchikof, that the Swedish monarch had passed the Berezina, and appeared to threaten the frontiers of Russia. He immediately quitted Petersburg, and made all possible preparations for a vigorous resistance.

Charles, in pursuing his march, had to encounter new difficulties at every step. The Russians, always retreating before him, burned the forage, spoiled the magazines, broke the bridges, and devastated the fields. The road into Lithuania was converted into a desert. His horses perished of hunger, and his soldiers of disease. Intense cold, heavy rains, difficult marches over swamps, added daily to his loss, and compelled him to halt in Lithuania. After refreshing his army, he again advanced, passed the river Vilitch, gave the Russians battle, and after sustaining considerable loss, continued his route.

Peter, who carefully observed the march of the enemy, supposed that Charles would proceed to Moscow; but that prince, depending for succours on the Kozacks, took the direction of the Ukraine.

The Swedish monarch had left Saxony at the head of 45,000 men; but their number had been greatly lessened by fatigue, battle, and disease. He ought therefore to have waited for Levenhaupt, who was on the road with 6,000 men, and a large quantity of ammunition; but, always impatient, he believed that his courage was equal to the conquest of nature, as well as of the Russians: this rashness was the cause of his ruin.

Charles wished to pass the Soja, in order to arrive at Desna. The Russian army, divided into various corps, harassed his march, and kept him at bay. He sent general Roos before him, to secure the passage of the river; but this enterprise was defeated by general Galitzin, who surprised the Swedes on the bank of the Napa, and cut off 2,000 of his men.

The generosity of Galitzin was more to be admired,

than his courage and success. Being asked by Peter, what he desired for his reward: "the pardon of Repnin," (who had recently fallen into disgrace) was his reply: "What!" exclaimed the Tzar, "do you not know that Repnin is your mortal enemy?" "I know it," said Galitzin, "and therefore it is that I implore his pardon." Peter sent to inform Repnin, that he should be restored to favour at the intercession of Galitzin, whom he adorned with the honours which he had doubly earned.

The Swedes, after having lost four standards, two pieces of cannon, one general officer, and many officers taken prisoners, were driven across a wood into the open plain, where the battle was renewed with redoubled courage and ardour. After an action of some hours, they were compelled to retire on their baggage, and the Russians stopped the pursuit. Both armies were worn with fatigue, and enjoyed a few hours of repose. About 5 o'clock, the Tzar was reinforced by general Bauer; and the rear-guard of the Swedish army arrived. Again the fight was renewed, and again victory declared for the Russians. They rushed upon the enemy, with sword and bayonet in hand, dispersed them, and captured their baggage. A furious snow-storm, and the approach of night, favoured the retreat of the conquered, and enabled them to effect their escape. They left 8,000 men on the field, and on the morrow, sustained new losses in their flight;—600 prisoners, 17 pieces of cannon, numerous standards and carriages of ammunition, money, and provision, remained in the power of the victors.

This victory was the most distinguished that the Russians had achieved during the war. It was the more brilliant, because they were inferior to the enemy in numbers; and Peter speaks of it in his journal as the parent of that of Pultava.

Charles, after the defeat of Levenhaupt, pushed forward to the Desna. The passage of this river, which was courageously disputed by Gordon, cost him 2,000 of his best troops. He then directed his march to Baturin, and was at length joined by Mazeppa, who had been deserted by his own soldiers as a perfidious traitor.

Peter was ignorant of the treason of Mazeppa until it had received its consummation. He commanded Menchikof to effect the capture of Baturin, which the rebel had engaged to surrender to the Swedes. The town was taken. The adjutant-general Kenixek, colonel Tchetchel, and several others of the principal accomplices of Mazeppa, were reserved to be conducted to the Tzar. All the rest were cruelly massacred; the treasure of the hetman was pillaged, his palace razed, and the towns and the magazines which he had destined for the Swedes, reduced to ashes. The chiefs of the Russian clergy pronounced their curses on Mazeppa; and his effigy was publicly exposed in the market-place at Glukof. Deprived of the badge of his order, it was drawn along the streets, in the midst of insult, and then fastened to a gallows. The next day, Kenixek, Tchetchel, and the other accomplices of the traitor were put to death.

Charles, flying from misfortune to misfortune, wandering through savage deserts, and succoured only by perfidious banditti, still regarded himself as the dispenser of crowns. Peter, on the other hand, shewed himself superior to the prosperous fortune which began to attend him. He offered peace to his enemy, on condition that he should reserve to himself Ingria, and the city of Petersburg; and even proposed to him an equivalent for Narva. This generous offer was rejected with disdain.

Charles still hoped that, after the capture of Baturin, the Ukranians and the Tartars would come over to his side. He pressed forward in his march, but could find only villages laid in ruins. In the month of December, commenced one of the severest winters that had been known in Russia. Birds fell down dead in the midst of their flight: a hundred and fifty Russian soldiers had their feet and hands frozen, and many died from the intensity of the cold.

The survivors, however, marched on, being defended by the shelter of a forest; while Charles, persuaded that the Russians intended to invade Gaditch, remained in the open plain, to oppose their design. He lost thousands of his men, by the rigour of the climate;

but neither their sufferings, nor the persuasion of his wisest counsellors, could induce him to retreat. Piper besought him to plunge no further into a scene of ravage and desolation; but, Mazeppa assured him, that he would find abundant provisions at Pultava, and he listened to the fatal advice.

Charles every day sustained new losses, and on one occasion was nearly taken prisoner. These terrible reverses, however, served only to inflame his foolish ambition. He wrote to Stanislaus to join him, and demanded succours, which that prince, who had been defeated by the Russians, was unable to afford. It was at Pultava that he hoped to find ammunition and stores, and, in spite of the counsel of his generals and his ministers, the siege of the city was commenced. Peter, who penetrated all the designs of his enemy, fortified it with a strong garrison, and distributed the greater part of his forces in such a manner, that at the first signal, they could re-unite. He then repaired to Azof, in order to deprive the Swedish monarch of all relief from the Tartars, but found that the Zaporavian Kozacks had already deserted to that prince.

The Tzar was at a small distance from Pultava, when he heard that the Swedes had laid siege to that city. They had already made several vigorous attacks, and had been as often repulsed. The Russians effected some murderous sallies, but Charles was still able to maintain the siege. A council of war was now called in the Russian camp, at which it was determined that general Beling, at the head of a select body of troops, should descend the Vorskla, a river which washes the walls of Pultava, and that, making a turn, he should surprise the enemy near the little town of Opochna; while Menchikof should throw three bridges over the river, during the night, and attack the front of the Swedes, on the other side. Prince Repnin, in the mean time, was appointed to a corps of reserve that was destined to afford succours, as occasion might require.

This plan was executed: the infantry of Menchikof passed the river on the bridges, and the cavalry waded through the stream. The Russians, braving the fire of the Swedes, fell upon them sword in hand, drove

them from their entrenchments, and pursued them to Opochna. Five Swedish regiments made a sally, but were repulsed, and driven back into the town.

Beling, however, could not arrive in time to succour Menchikof; and the Swedish monarch, placing himself at the head of seven of his regiments, compelled the Russians to retire. In the mean time, Golovin threw a detachment of 900 men into Pultava; a stratagem which was most ably conducted, and led Charles to exclaim, "We have taught the Russians the art of war."

A party of light Russian troops slew the advanced guard of the Swedes, and captured more than 2,000 horses. A few companies of grenadiers were commanded to take possession of a bridge, where the enemy had a redoubt. The Swedes were driven from their post; but the Russians, in the heat of their pursuit, plunged into a marsh, from which they could not extricate themselves but with extreme difficulty. The enemy, perceiving their embarrassment, played upon them both with their musquetry and artillery. While the Russians defended themselves amidst all the disadvantages of their situation, the garrison made a diversion in their favour, drove the besiegers from their works, and pursued them to the river; but as the Swedes received constant reinforcements, the Russians were forced to yield. They retired, however, in perfect order, and were even permitted to establish a redoubt at the head of the bridge.

Peter arrived on the 4th of June, and the operations were resumed with increased activity. Veprin, in which more than a thousand Russian soldiers and officers had been confined, was retaken. General Renn passed the Vorskla, at the head of a body of dragoons and light troops, and sent a part of them to attack the baggage of the Swedes. The king himself having met them on their march, assailed them with his wonted fury. They pretended to take to flight, and stopped near a forest, from which a party of their dragoons, who had been concealed, made an unexpected attack, and drove the Swedes from the field.

On the 20th, the whole of the Russian forces passed the Vorskla above Pultava. They advanced on the 25th, and finding themselves within a third of a league of the enemy, they halted, in order to avoid the necessity of a general battle. During the night, they threw up a long entrenchment between their camp and the Swedish army. The cavalry was posted among the woods, and covered with numerous redoubts of artillery. The ensuing night, Charles was anxious to observe the manœuvres of the Russians. He approached a small party of Kozacks, who were carelessly collected around a fire; and having descended from his horse, without being perceived, he fired his carabine, and killed one of them with his own hand. The Kozacks, provoked by the loss of their companion, rise from their seats, and seize their arms: Charles is wounded in the thigh, and endeavours to conceal his misfortune; but it is betrayed by the blood which flows down his boot, and he is obliged to allow himself to be carried back to the camp. This accident spread discouragement and alarm through his army.

At length, on the 27th of June, the famous battle commenced, which was to decide the fate of two crowns. Early in the morning, a corps commanded by generals Roos and Schlipenbach, attacked the Russians, with all the courage for which they had so long been famed, overthrew their cavalry, and seized on two of their redoubts. The Swedes already counted themselves victors; but wishing to improve their advantages, they made an incautious advance, were separated from the main body of the army, and thrown into complete disorder. Schlipenbach, almost enclosed by the enemy, retired to a wood. Attacked in his turn, he sustained an entire defeat, and was obliged to surrender at discretion. Roos could find no safety in his entrenchments, and was compelled to follow his example.

Peter remarked, that the principal corps of the Swedish army, advanced with some disorder through the redoubt: he immediately ordered an attack. The general battle commenced about nine o'clock in the morning. *Charles*, borne upon a litter, passed from

rank to rank, with pistol in hand. A cannon-ball broke the litter, and killed one of its supporters. The fire on both sides became terrible: the action lasted only two hours. The artillery of the Russians was numerous, well supplied, and posted to great advantage. The Swedes, who thought themselves invincible, and who deserved to be so by their valour, gave way, took to flight, and were pursued into a wood, where they had been drawn up before the action. They lost in the field and in the redoubt, more than 9,000 men, exclusive of those who were slain in the wood, or who afterwards died of their wounds. The Russians lost less than 1400 men, and had only about 3,000 wounded. Peter displayed the qualities of a great general, valour, coolness, and skill; and was to be seen wherever his presence was required. The hat which he wore in the field, is still exhibited at Petersburg, pierced with numerous balls.

Peter discovered much concern for the vanquished monarch. He dined in his camp with the principal Swedish officers and generals, whom he had made prisoners. Count Piper, the prime minister of Sweden, and two secretaries of state, perceiving that they were left without hope, surrendered themselves, and were invited to the table of the victor. Peter highly praised the valour of the conquered generals; gave his sword to field-marshal Rennschild; and acknowledged that he was indebted to the Swedes for his knowledge in the art of war.

The Tzar sent Menchikof in pursuit of the flying Swedes. This general could not overtake Charles, who had passed the Dnieper, followed by a few horsemen. Mazeppa had outstripped the prince in his flight, and died a few months after, at Bender.

Menchikof came up with the rest of the conquered army, commanded by Levenhaupt. It consisted of 14,000 men, while the Russian general had only 9,000; but he well knew that the Swedes, dismayed at their defeat, lost in a country which afforded them no resources, and having nothing to gain even by a victory, would decline a battle. He proposed to Levenhaupt, to surrender both himself and his army, and the pro-

posal was accepted. Thus, if we except a few hundred horse, who accompanied Charles into Turkey, the whole Swedish army remained prisoners in the hands of the Russians.

Peter, as the reward of his victory at Pultava, was raised to the rank of major-general in the army, and of admiral in the navy. He thus wrote from the field of battle to one of his friends: "Thank God! the foundation-stone of Petersburg is firmly laid."

Charles fled with a few attendants to Otchakof, but the governor refused to admit him into the city. He then repaired to Bender, where he was received with distinguished honour. In this retreat, the prince who had been long accustomed to command every thing by force of arms, and to believe that nothing could resist his power, practised all the petty arts of intrigue, in order to embroil the Porte with the Tzar. He who had dictated laws to so many sovereigns of Europe, was compelled to court the favour, and obey the caprice of the Grand Turk.

Peter, with a magnanimity that does him honour, sent proposals of peace to Charles from the field of victory. In the first humiliation of defeat, the Swedish monarch appeared disposed to accept them; but in his asylum at Bender, he felt the flame of ambition rekindle in his breast, and as if he had been master of the forces of the Porte, he still thought of triumphing over those of Russia and her allies.

Peter, on returning into his dominions, visited his army encamped near Riga, under the command of Sheremetef, and directed the attack. He repaired to Petersburg, and furnished the dimensions of the first ship that was built in that port: it was pierced with 54 guns, and was named the Pultava. Thence he took the road to Moscow, but as he wished to make a triumphant entry into that city, he stopped at Kolomna.

The 21st of December was the day appointed for the pageant. Seven triumphal arches were erected, and adorned with all the most valuable productions of nature and art. The first regiment of guards, clad in a rich uniform, opened the procession. Then followed the artillery of the Swedes, which had been taken at

Lesno and at Pultava. Each of the large cannons was drawn by eight horses, covered with scarlet cloth. The colours, standards, and drums of the enemy were borne by the officers who had captured them in the field. The litter was exhibited on which Charles had fought, and which had been shivered by a cannon ball. This spectacle inspired the people with a noble pride, and reminded them of the humiliation of a king, whose very name had filled them with terror and dismay. Then appeared the Swedish general and the other prisoners, clothed in their respective uniforms, and marching in their ranks. The victors followed, on prancing steeds. The Tzar accompanied them, wearing the dress of a major-general, and mounted upon the horse which he had ridden at the battles of Lesno and Pultava. The procession was closed by the second regiment of guards, followed by the chariots taken from the conquered.

The siege of Riga, to which we have already adverted, was maintained. The place was naturally strong; the number and courage of its defenders supported the hopes of the besieged; but provisions failed, and famine and disease ensued. The governor Patkul was obliged to capitulate. Dunamund, Pernof, Kexholm, Revel, and the isle of Oesel followed the example of Riga, and thus the whole of Livonia submitted to the Russian arms.

Through the intrigues of Charles at the court of Achmet,* war was soon after declared between the Russians and Turks. Peter, compelled to carry his arms into a distant country, named a council of regency, and confided, or rather seemed to confide to his son Alexis, the administration of the state. He caused ten regiments that were encamped in Poland, to advance towards Moldavia, and ordered the battalion that was commanded by Sheremetef, to hasten from Livonia to the seat of war; while he dispatched Admiral Apraxin to Azof, to take the command both by sea and land.

A great majority of the Russian officers were persons of obscure birth. The nobility shunned the military service, and concealed themselves at their country-

* This Turkish sovereign had succeeded Mustapha.

seats; but the senate received orders to summon them to a general assembly, and to compel them to share the perils of the approaching campaign.

In 1707, Peter, who had compelled his empress to take the veil under the name of Helena, was privately married to Catherine, the fair stranger who had been taken captive at Marcinburg. At the time of her marriage, she occupied an inferior house in a remote part of the city; and thither the Tzar often retired with his ministers, to settle the most important affairs of the state. In this retreat, she gave birth to two princesses; Anne, born in 1708, and Elizabeth, born in 1709. Peter, before he exposed himself to new perils, was desirous that his choice of the empress should be ratified by the nation; he therefore caused his marriage to be publicly announced on the day of his departure from Moscow, and gave orders that Catherine should be proclaimed the new Tzaritza.

The empress accompanied Peter on his route to the army, and shared with him all the toils and perils of the campaign. The march of the soldiers became every day more difficult, and was attended with new privations. Born amidst the rigours of the north, they had no sooner quitted the shores of the Dniester, than they were attacked by the most fatal disorders, and perished in great numbers. Thinned by disease, and worn with fatigue, the army at length arrived at Yassi, the capital of Moldavia.

After a brief season of repose, the Russians pursued their march along the right shore of the Pruth; and the Turks having crossed the river from the opposite bank, a battle ensued. The Ottoman forces commenced the attack with all their characteristic impetuosity and ardour; but they were repulsed and defeated, and are reported to have left 7000 men on the field. The Russians, though thus victorious, were involved in the greatest difficulties and straits. Provisions fell short, and they were consumed with the most parching thirst. Though encamped in the vicinity of the river, they feared to approach it; for a Turkish battery, planted upon a mountain, protected it from the opposite shore. In these circumstances, they had no alternative but to

perish with famine, or to gain their liberty, by penetrating an army of 270,000 men.

Peter felt all the horrors of his situation. He dispatched a courier to Moscow with a letter, in which he charged the senate to no longer consider him their sovereign, if he should fall into the hands of the Turks, and to elect a new emperor, if he should perish in the field. He then retired into his tent, and forbade any one to follow him, on pain of death. There he fell into convulsions, to which he was always subject, and which were now brought upon him by the perturbed and harassed state of his mind.

Catherine, having followed the Tzar, at the risk of her life, claimed a right to disobey his commands; eluding the vigilance of the guards, she crept under the tent, surprised him in the midst of his frightful reverie, and constrained him to sue for a peace.

Baron Chafirof, vice-chancellor of Russia, was sent to treat with the Vizir, and his mission was crowned with success. The Turks consented to peace, on condition that Charles should be at liberty to return into his own country; that the Russians should withdraw their armies from Poland, destroy several of their fortresses, and restore Azof to the condition in which it was placed before it fell into their hands.

Peter, after the unfortunate expedition to the Pruth, returned to his states. The enfeebled state of his health obliged him to repair to the waters of Carlsbadt; on his return, he passed by Dresden, and celebrated at Torgau the marriage of his son with the princess of Wolfenbuttel. Thence he hastened to Thorn, where the empress awaited his arrival; and after having reviewed his army in Polish Prussia, he returned to Petersburg, where he celebrated his marriage with Catherine. He constituted this city the true capital of his empire, by calling thither the senate which he had established the preceeding year at Moscow; henceforth it became the residence of the court, the centre of the government, and the principal mart of a rich and extensive commerce.

New intrigues of the Swedish monarch induced the Sultan to declare war a second time against Russia.

Achmet, in order to derive the more efficient aid from Sweden, commanded Charles to return to his states; but the infatuated sovereign refused to obey the mandate. The Sultan, equally astonished and provoked at his refusal, determined to expel him from his dominions by force; and for this purpose, invested the house in which he resided with an army of Tartars and Turks. Charles had the folly still to resist, and even attempted, with the help of his attendants, to sustain a siege. At length, the soldiers having set fire to the building, he attempted to escape through a window, but was prevented. During this attempt, more worthy of the hero of Cervantes than the imitator of Alexander, the Turks might have killed him, but barbarians are not always cruel. They spared a monarch, whose valour, notwithstanding its eccentricities, inspired their respect,

Charles was conducted to the fortress of Bender, and thence to Adrianople, where the Grand Signior, who had placed himself at the head of his forces, awaited his arrival. He was at first guarded in a castle named Demotik; but through the mediation of the French ambassador, he was soon transferred to Demerdesh, a place situate in the vicinity of Bender. In the mean time, Achmet being informed of the enfeebled state of Sweden, and of the strict alliance of the northern powers, made peace with Russia, and liberated her ambassadors, whom he had imprisoned in the seven towers

The infirm health of the Tzar compelled him to resort a second time to the waters of Carlsbadt. Passing through Wittenberg, he visited the tomb of Luther, and the chamber that had been occupied by that distinguished enemy of the papal power.

While Peter was at Carlsbadt, he heard that Count Steenboek, the Swedish general, had driven back the Saxons and entered Mecklenburg. He immediately set out for that country, took the command of his forces, and hastened to the relief of his allies; but before his arrival at their camp, he was informed that they had sustained a most inglorious defeat. Undismayed by misfortunes, he followed the enemy into Jutland, *siezed upon* Fredericstadt, made prisoners of

300 Swedes, and compelled Steenboek to take refuge in Tonningen.

Peter did not remain at the siege of Tonningen; but leaving the command of his troops to prince Menchikof, he returned to Petersburg, in order to strike another blow at Charles, by the attack of Finland.

The Baltic was no sooner freed from the dense frost, with which it is covered a considerable part of the year, than Peter embarked on it with an army of 16,000 men. In his descent, he made himself master of the coast, and on his arrival at Cronslot, visited three vessels, which he had caused to be purchased in England, and to be navigated to these northern shores. These were immediately followed by five others, which entered the port of Revel, bringing with them English officers and seamen, who had engaged to enter the naval service of the Tzar. A short time after, Peter returned to his new capital, where he received a splendid embassy from Persia; and in the style of the east, was presented with lions and an elephant.

After having received this flattering homage, he returned to his army; but as the Swedes constantly retired before him, he had no opportunity of signalizing his courage. He intended to lay siege to Abo; but on his arrival before it, he found it left without inhabitants. On seeking the enemy, he could discover no track of his passage, and met with nothing but abandoned flocks. He therefore entrusted the command to Apraxin, and returned to Petersburg.

Apraxin went in pursuit of the Swedes; but instead of waiting his approach, they threw their cannon into the sea, and retired to a river named Pelkin, where an impassable marsh seemed to promise them security. The Russians, however, triumphed over this natural obstacle, crossed the putrid waters on planks, and after an action of three hours, defeated the Swedes, and put them to a shameful flight. Victory followed victory, and even Stockholm began to tremble for its fate.

A short time after, a naval battle was fought in the gulf of Finland between the contending powers, in which the Russians were victorious, and gained possession of the isle of Aland, which is at but a short

distance from the capital of Sweden. Peter, who was present and commanded at the action, undertook to convey the prizes to Petersburg; and in the progress of his voyage, was overtaken by a storm. His fleet was sailing between two rocks, when a furious wind arose; the darkness of the night added to the danger, and the affrighted seamen forsook the helm. Peter alone was tranquil and undismayed. In spite of the entreaties of his generals, he descended into a boat, crossed the foaming abyss, and having reached the land, hoisted lighted beacons, which guided his ships into the desired haven.

A triumphal procession followed this victory; and when the pageant was ended, he is said to have thus harangued the different orders of the state:—"My brethren, which of you, thirty years since, could have imagined that we should one day construct vessels on the Baltic; that by our toils and our valour we should raise a city on its shores, and that there should spring from Russian blood such a host of victorious warriors and distinguished seamen? Which of you could have foreseen at that time, that so many scholars, industrious workmen, and renowned artists, would come from different parts of Europe to improve the arts in our country; that we should receive such high consideration from foreign powers; in a word, that such illustrious glory was in reserve for the Russian name? We learn from history, that the sciences formerly took up their abode in Greece; but that being driven thence by the revolutions of time, they passed into Italy and other countries of Europe. Through the negligence of our ancestors, they can scarcely be said to have reached us; but our turn has now arrived, if you second my exertions, and add labour to your obedience. The migrations of sciences may be compared to the circulation of the blood; and I hope, that one day, abandoning Germany, France, and England, they will return through Russia to Greece, their ancient country, and primeval source."

The number of Swedish prisoners was exceeding great. Many thousands of them that had been employed in the labours of the mines, were transferred to the works of Petersburg and the Ladoga canal, in which

not a few of them perished. Others of them adopted the Russian manners and religion, and established themselves in the country of their lords.

The Swedish officers, to the number of two thousand, were distributed through all the towns of the empire. A thousand, at the least, were exiled to Siberia. Those of them who were remarkable for talent or industry, practised trades, or employed themselves in schools; some established manufactures, others engaged in commerce; others became tinmen, shoemakers, and tailors; while those who possessed force without skill, obtained labour as butchers. Such was the degraded state to which the nobility of Sweden were reduced, by the mad ambition of their monarch, who would never consent to an exchange of prisoners with the Russians.

Charles, by his inordinate thirst for military glory, had drained his country of her resources: he was now consummating her ruin by his absence. The most enlightened of the Swedes resolved to treat his commands with neglect, to invest Ulric with the supreme authority of the state, and to devise means for obtaining peace with the Tzar and his allies. Already they had obtained a passport to the Russian court, for an officer whom they had entrusted with the conditions of a treaty, when they heard that Charles was preparing to return to his states. The plan of negociation was immediately abandoned; every one expected that the hero of Sweden would decide the fate of his country, either by hastening her destruction, or re-establishing her fame.

Charles returned from his Turkish exile, in the dress of a common courier; traversed the greater part of Germany in disguise, and threw himself into Stralsund with an attendance of only four men.

It was to be hoped, that beholding the privation and sufferings of his subjects, he would be moved to pity, and seek, above all things, to terminate the horrors of war. But neither his own misfortunes, nor the miseries of his subjects, could either subdue his pride or soften his heart; he felt no interest but in schemes of ambition, and dreams of conquests, and immediately prepared for an attack of his foes.

The Tzar, and the kings of Poland and Denmark, resolved to attack him before he could assemble his scattered forces. The king of Prussia, and George I. of England, governed by motives of ambition, joined their alliance. The Danes, the Russians, and the Saxons laid siege to Stralsund, where Charles was shut up. Almost all his officers were either killed or wounded; while he himself supported fatigues which would have exhausted the firmest soldier in his ranks. He seemed to feel nothing but the courage with which he was inspired; but all its efforts were vain. His own safety being provided for, Stralsund was surrendered to the allies.

But let us lose sight for a moment of the operations of war, and advert to the improvements which Peter was urging forward in the state.

The finest spectacle which Petersburg now enjoyed, was that of the new vessels, which were constructed at the Russian admiralty, and launched on the waters of the Neva; while those which had been purchased in Holland or England, touched at the port of Cronslot.

Peter founded a naval school at Petersburg, which has been since transferred to Cronstadt. He cherished an enthusiastic desire to make all his subjects seamen. He forbade all construction of bridges over the Neva, and even commanded that no one should pass the river in a boat with oars. The merchants, the lawyers, the tradesmen, and even the females were obliged to imitate the valour of their monarch, and brave death in barks with sails.* Misfortunes sometimes happened, but nothing could change the inflexible will of the Tzar.

But if he abandoned his subjects to death on the waters, he protected their lives from the fire, and forbade houses of wood to be built in the finest quarter of Petersburg. He ascended into the flames with the same courage which he displayed in the field. When the alarm of fire accosted his ear, he ran to the burning edifice, entered before the workmen, and set them an example of intrepidity and skill. If a person had seen him in the midst of the flames, with axe in hand, and

* The Neva is liable to violent gusts of wind.

braving the very element of peril, he would have taken him for the proprietor of the house, who was venturing into the very arms of death, to rescue his fortune from ruin

The ancient laws of Russia gave children an equal share in the inheritance of their fathers. Peter ordained that immoveable property should descend to one of the male children of the family, whom the father should nominate without respect to age; but that moveable goods should be shared according to the will of the parents, among the other children of both sexes. A father who had only daughters, was to select from them an heiress to his real estate. The intention of these legal statutes was to impoverish the sons of the younger sons of the nobility, and to compel them to seek employment in the naval or military service of the state.

Peter sent one of his captains to Little Bukharia, with the hope of making it the medium of a rich commerce with India. He thought also of opening the road to the same commerce by Great Bukharia; and for this purpose sent prince Sherkuski into that country. He believed that the river Amour, which the Romans called Oxus, formerly emptied itself into the Caspian Sea, and that the Kalmucks diverted its course into the lake Aral. He wished to restore it to its ancient bed, and to make it the means of transporting his vessels from the port of Astrachan.

About the same time, he sent an embassy into Persia, to remove the obstacles which impeded the commerce between the two nations; but the Shah, who trembled on his throne, was no longer master of the route which was traversed by the caravans of the Tzar.

Peter also endeavoured to strengthen the bonds of his alliance with China. The chief of that empire was desirous to obtain a physician from Russia. The Tzar sent him an English surgeon under that name, whom he charged to acquire a knowledge of the polity, the productions, and the manufactures of the celestial empire.

The amusements of the Tzar were either pleasures which required great corporeal vigour, or labours which were opposed to all gentleness of taste and pursuit,

He delighted to brave the tempest; when his seamen were unnerved with fear, he would seize the helm, give his orders with the greatest calmness and resolution, and in the midst of the conflict of winds and waves, deliver lectures on naval tactics to his astonished attendants. At other times, he would amuse himself with the work of turning. He was the best turner in his empire, and one of the best in Europe. Specimens of his success in this art are still preserved.

He would often visit the harbour, to converse freely with the seamen of foreign nations. Clothed with the same plainness as themselves, talking with them on subjects peculiar to their profession, sharing and exciting their mirth, drinking, smoking with them, he made them forget his rank. When he visited his shipwrights, he did not content himself with a kindly glance, or a gracious word; but as at Sardam, he wielded the saw and the axe, and furthered the work with the labour of his own hands. When unemployed in command, he treated the soldiers as their equal rather than their sovereign. He was not merely an affable prince, who stooped to talk to the unfortunate; he was a man who conversed with men.

Every day, he went abroad, and never indulged himself in the use of a carriage; all his subjects could approach him, could speak to him. He often went on foot; in winter, he was drawn on a sledge, and, after the snow had fallen, in a kind of cabriolet, uncovered, and without springs.—Who would dare to be effeminate under the eyes of such a monarch?

Amidst all his numerous engagements, he found time to keep a journal of his wars with Sweden and Turkey, and to write a great number of letters to his friends; for it would be improper to give any other title to his generals and ministers. But the friendship of the Tzar was terrible: in his paroxysms of fury, he forgot his attachments, the services which he had received, his rank, himself. In his fits of intoxication, he struck his friends; and when they became ill from the blows they had received, he sent them doctors, and visited them in his own person, to afford them comfort and relief.

He gave liberty of conscience to the nations he

subdued, but treated Russian dissenters with a stern severity. Peter feared them, because one of them, a fierce enthusiast, had attempted his life. Three hundred of these unfortunate beings, pursued by the soldiery, took refuge in a church, and having set fire to it, perished with their children in the flames.

Peter, astonished at their constancy, gave orders that the remaining disciples of this sect should be permitted to live in peace; but forbade them, on pain of his displeasure, to make proselytes to their faith.

We have given some illustrations of the more peaceful life of the Tzar—it is time to follow him in his warlike expeditions.

He set out from Petersburg with Catherine, and passing through Riga, arrived at Dantzic. While in that city, he published his military code, gave audience to the king of Poland, and celebrated the marriage of the duke of Mecklenbnrg with his niece.

Charles, having assembled an army of 35,000 men, made an irruption into Norway, where he gained several conquests, and threatened to retrieve the glory of his arms.

Peter, informed of these disasters, met the king of Denmark at Hamburg, promised to assist him in the recovery of Norway, and to join the Russian fleet to those of the allies, in order to restore the freedom of commerce to the Baltic Sea.

At Copenhagen, he received five ships of the line, a frigate, which he had purchased in Britain, and two vessels from Archangel. He repaired to Rostock himself in search of his gallies, and transferred his forces to Denmark, to assist in the prosecution of the war. On the 5th of August, 1716, Peter hoisted his standard as commander-in-chief of the Russian, English, Danish, and Dutch fleets. He was saluted by all the admirals; and the signal for departure was given. The combined squadrons traversed the Baltic, but the Swedes who were afraid to encounter so formidable a foe, concealed themselves in their ports. They therefore returned to Copenhagen, without striking a blow.

The king of Denmark implored Peter to hasten his

expedition against Norway, but the Tzar declared he would attempt nothing until spring. The Dane, piqued at his refusal, charged him with treachery to his allies, and a secret understanding with Charles; while the Prussian monarch professed to believe that he meditated an attack upon the Danish capital itself.

At length, Peter withdrew his troops from Prussia: one part was led into Mecklenburg, for the protection of the Duke; another marched to the frontiers of Poland, while the greater part of the fleet returned to Petersburg.

The king of England besought the emperor of Germany to drive the Russians from Mecklenburg, representing them as formidable to all the members of the empire. He made this request, not in the capacity of Sovereign of Britain, but as Director of the circle of Lower Saxony.

CHAP. IV.

Journey to France—Trial and Death of Alexis.

THE estates of the Tzar were now tranquil; but to his vigorous and ardent mind, repose was a greater affliction than the severest hardships and toils. The senate at Petersburg watched over all the administration of affairs; admiral Apraxin and the other generals defended the conquered provinces on the shores of the Baltic, and its gulfs; field-marshal Sheremetef, with the army in Mecklenburg, observed the movements of the allies. These circumstances, and his natural thirst for travel, induced him to make a second journey to the west of Europe, not more to perfect himself in the arts, than to pry into the secrets of distant courts.

Peter set out from Schverin with Catherine, who was in a state of advanced pregnancy—passed by Hamburg—visited Altona, which he beheld in ruins

— traversed Westphalia, and at length arrived in Holland. Catherine remained at Wesel, and was there confined of a son, who lived only a day. The princess, who soon recovered from her confinement, rejoined her husband, and arrived at Amsterdam, January 14th, 1717.

The Tzar, with all his wonted curiosity, visited all the workshops and manufactures of the city; conversed with the learned men, and instructed himself in the commerce of both Britain and Holland. He conducted his wife to Saardam, and shewed her the site and the companions of his former toils. His workshop had been changed into an agreeable mansion, which was called *the house of the prince.*

It was during this journey, and after all the great actions he had performed, that he said to a magistrate: "I have been able to reform my nation, but not myself." He often complained with bitterness of the defects of his education, and of his inability to correct the vices of his early years.

Peter remained in Holland, until the following spring, occupied in projects of state, and watching the manœuvres of Goertz, the Swedish envoy at the Dutch court. From Holland, he passed over into France, and arrived at Paris on the 26th of July. He was received at the Louvre, and ushered into a splendid apartment which had been prepared for him; but he preferred a more retired and lowly residence, and went the same evening to an hotel which belonged to the Marshal Villeroi, where he took up his abode. There, on the following day, he was visited by the regent, and two days after, by the king himself, who was a boy of seven years of age.

The Tzar was ignorant of French, and therefore employed prince Kurakin as his interpreter; Marshal Villeroi spoke in the name of the young monarch.

The next day Peter paid a visit to the king, at the castle of the Tuilleries; and when the young prince was introduced to him, he took him in his arms, and carried him about the room.

He visited the arsenal, the garden of apothecaries, the cabinets of anatomy, the observatory, and all

other public places that were fitted to amuse or instruct his active and curious mind. He assisted at a meeting of the Academy of Sciences, and consented to be received into the number of its members: in order to merit this distinction, he corrected before them the chart of Russia, and especially that of the Caspian Sea.

The Parisians treated the Tzar with all the politeness for which they are famed. He dined one day at the duke of Auton's: at the end of the repast, he saw a portrait of himself that had been just painted, placed in the drawing-room, as if it had been sketched in a moment by the hand of a magician.

When he went to the gallery of the Louvre, a medal rolled at his feet; he took it up, and immediately recognized his own head: on the other side was a figure of Fame laying her foot upon the globe. The inscription was formed of these words of Virgil: *vires acquirit eundo* (it acquires strength by going,) and he could not fail to make the application to himself.

He was conducted to the church, and the house of the Sorbonne. It is related that while there, he embraced the statue of Cardinal Richelieu, exclaiming: "Great man, I would give thee the half of my estates, to be instructed by thee to govern the other"

The doctors of the Sorbonne, represented to him that it would be easy to re-unite the churches of Russia and Rome; but Peter shewed them, that this re-union was not so practicable as they conceived. He promised them, however, that if they wished to write to his clergy, he would ensure them a reply; and the letters which passed between these doctors and the Russian prelates, are still preserved.

The Tzarovitch Alexis was born the 29th February, 1690, of Eudoxia, the first wife of the Tzar. At the age of nine years, he was consigned to the monastery of Souzdal, and there educated in all the prejudice and bigotry of his ecclesiastic guides. These laboured to instil into his mind a reverence for ancient usages, a hatred of all innovation in habits and manners, and a horror for the strangers whom his father delighted to honour and reward.

When Peter at length appointed governors to his son, selected from the family of Eudoxia, it was too late. The young prince was already confirmed in his prejudices: and even his new instructors appear to have but been little superior to priests and monks.

The ecclesiastics and other counsellors, were as much attached to Alexis by pleasure, as by prejudice. He drank with them, and his education admitted no other amusements than those of debauchery and vice. It may be conceded, indeed, that his drunkenness with priests was not more culpable than the revelry of his father with buffoons, and corrupt courtiers; but his companions in riot, persuaded him that the Tzar, weakened by numerous infirmities, could not long survive, and that when he should succeed to the throne himself, he would be able to re-establish the manners which had been so dear to his ancestors from the most early times.

It cannot be denied that Alexis cherished no love to his father; nor ought this to be matter of surprise, since he seldom beheld him without a frown upon his countenance, and a reproach in his mouth. The marriage of Peter with Catherine contributed to heighten the severity with which he treated his son.

History, which too often calumniates the unfortunate, has represented Alexis as a compound of weakness and vice. It is certain, however, that the care bestowed upon the literary department of his education, was not entirely lost. He could draw; he had some knowledge of the mathematics; he could speak and write German. To these acquirements were added, in early youth, an agreeable person and figure. Had he lived an age sooner, he would have passed in his country for an able and wise prince; but he was averse to application, and his father, active, laborious, and severe to himself, could not endure the appearance of softness and effeminacy in others.

Peter attributed the indolence of his son to the inactive life which he led at Moscow and Petersburg. To inspire him with activity, and instruct him in military science and discipline, he placed him in the guards, in the capacity of serjeant. If this inferior rank should appear to us unworthy of the inheritor of a throne, it

should be remembered, that the Tzar himself commenced his military career as a drummer in the regiment of Le Fort.

Peter took Alexis with him in several of his expeditions; and to form him for civil and military affairs, he confided to him the administration of the state, during his absence in the Turkish war. The prince obeyed his father in his presence, but always with disgust.

Peter, as a last resource, determined to send Alexis into Germany, that he might mingle with the princes of that nation, and espouse a foreign princess. The prince obeyed the will of his father, and contracted a marriage with the princess Wolfenbuttel, a lady who did honour both to her native country, and her adopted nation.

Alexis neither fulfilled the duties of a husband, nor the promises which he had made to his father. He treated his amiable bride with contempt, and preferred the society of a Finnish peasant of the most common grade. The sorrowful princess wept in secret, but uttered neither murmur nor complaint. A profound melancholy preyed on her vitals, and conducted her to an early tomb. She left two children by Alexis, Natalia, and Peter, who was born Oct. 11th, 1715.

The Tzar, on the day of his departure for Germany, paid a visit to Alexis; he wished to know if the young prince had at length imbibed sentiments worthy of his high destiny. He learnt, with keen disappointment, that the heir of his throne wished to consume his days amidst the obscurity and ease of a monastery, the slave of superstition, and the companion of priests. He endeavoured by counsels and entreaties, to elevate his abject soul to nobler cares and pursuits, but in vain; and at length left him six months to determine his fate.

Six months having elapsed, Peter wrote to Alexis from Copenhagen, with a demand for his final reply. He informed him, that if he wished to render himself worthy of succeeding him on the throne, he must come to him in eight days, and submit to the toils and hardships of the campaign; but that if he wished to wear the habit of a monk, he must appoint the time, the

place, and the hour of his retreat. Alexis, instead of sending his father a reply, took the road to Vienna, and placed himself under the protection of the emperor Charles VI.

Peter was at Amsterdam, when he received the news of his son's escape. He immediately dispatched Rumiantsof, the captain of his guards, to Vienna, who found on his arrival in that city, that the prince had escaped to Naples. Thither he hastened the same messenger, and the privy-counsellor Tolstof, making them the bearers of the following letter:—

"My dear son, your obstinacy and contempt of my orders is known to all the world. Neither my words, nor my corrections, have made you obedient to my will. In my absence you have deceived me, and in violation of your oaths, have taken to a disgraceful flight. You have placed yourself as a traitor under foreign protection; a thing unheard of, not only in our family, but even among subjects of distinguished rank! What mortification you occasion your father! What injury you do yourself! What disgrace you bring upon your country!

"I write to you for the last time: I command you to do every thing which my messengers require of you in my name. Do you fear me? I assure and promise you, in the name of God, and by the solemnities of the last judgment, that I will inflict no punishment upon you, and that I will even love you more than before, if you submit to my will, and return hither. But if you refuse to do this, then, in quality of father, and by the power which God has confided to me, I give you my eternal curse, for the evil and dishonour you have brought upon me as a parent; and, as your sovereign, I declare you a traitor, and protest that I will find means to punish you as such; in which I hope for the help of God, as called for by the justice of my cause."

The messengers found Alexis at Naples, delivered to him the letter of the Tzar, and promised him a full pardon, if he would return to Russia. The prince at first hesitated; but the viceroy having declared to him, in the name of the emperor, that he ought to return to

his father, he lost all hope, and was obliged to submit.

Alexis arrived at Preobrajenski, about the end of January, 1718; and Peter, who was at Moscow, was immediately informed of the event. The young prince, after the letter which he had received from the Tzar, was induced to believe that he should throw himself into the arms of a tender and clement father, who, in gladness of heart for his return, would forget his follies and crimes. But he mistook the unrelenting character of Peter. He was ordered to Moscow, and without attendants or sword, conducted to the palace, where all the nobles were assembled. As soon as he beheld his father, he fell at his feet, supplicated his pardon, and presented him with the following letter:—

"My very clement sovereign and father,

I here renew the confession of my crime, which I have already sent to you from Naples. I confess, moreover, on the present occasion, that I have violated the duties of a son and subject, by putting myself under the protection of the emperor, and imploring his aid. I entreat my pardon, and your clemency.

Your Majesty's very obedient and wicked slave, who is not worthy to be called your son,

ALEXIS."

This affecting document, which breathes the spirit of the prodigal in the gospel, ought to have melted the heart of a parent into tenderness and love. The Tzar replied, that he pardoned him; but that, as by his conduct, he had forfeited all right to the crown, he commanded him to announce this forfeiture to the world.

The Tzarovitch obeyed, and signed his renunciation of the crown in these terms:—

I, the undersigned, confess before the holy gospel, that by my offence against my sovereign father, as well as by my incapacity, I am justly deprived of my right of succession. I promise and swear, by the Holy Trinity, and by the judgment of God, that I wholly submit to the will of my sovereign and father; and that I will

neither seek, desire, nor accept the succession to the throne, at any time, or in any manner whatever. I acknowledge as the true and lawful heir to the crown, Peter Petrovitch, my brother. I kiss the holy cross, and sign this writing with my own hand. Given at Moscow, February 3rd, 1718. ALEXIS.

There was then read, in a loud voice, an instrument, in which the Tzar, having enumerated the offences of his son, declared, that in consequence, and by virtue of his paternal authority and absolute power, he excluded Alexis from the throne, and that this exclusion should be in force, though the reigning family in its other branches should become extinct; that he named for his heir the Tzarovitch Peter, in spite of his infant years; that he required his faithful subjects, whether secular or ecclesiastic, to make oath before the holy altars, upon the holy gospel, and, on kissing the cross, to recognize Peter as legitimate heir to the crown; and that he would denounce as traitors to the state and sovereign, all who should ever recognize Alexis as his successor, or assist him in ascending the throne. This declaration was signed by the hand of the Tzar.

The Tzar, the miserable Alexis, the ministers, and all the assistants repaired to the principal church, where the declaration of the sovereign was once more read in the presence of the assembled clergy, who took the oath. It might have been supposed that here an affair so revolting from the feelings of a parent, would have ended, and that the disinherited Tzarovitch had been sufficiently punished; but Peter, at the end of an harangue, in which he had dilated on the crimes of his son, declared to him that he should not receive a full pardon, unless he narrated all the circumstances of his flight, and revealed the names of all persons who had either counselled, or been privy to the deed. Alexis swore publicly to his father that he would disclose all to him, and he was then conducted back, under a strong guard, to Preobrajenski.

Peter wrote several interrogatories, to which he required his son to reply:—

"In the time of the severe illness of the Tzar, did any one make offer of service to the Tzarovitch, in *case of his* father's death?

"Was his request to be immured in a convent, sincere? Of whom took he counsel? To whom did he confide the secret?

"Had he long formed the project of his flight?

"With whom had he conferred by word, or in writing? From whom had he received encouragement and assistance?"

To the first question, the prince answered in the decided negative. In reply to the others, he acknowledged that Kikin, prince Viakemski, and others had advised him to retire into a monastery, or even, if he could, to seek safety in flight; but that he had received supplies only from the senate, from Menchikof, and other persons whom he had never admitted into his confidence. Among the names of the persons who had advised the measure of his flight, he omitted to mention that of his aunt Maria; and certain circumstances were discovered which he had omitted to reveal: these omissions were regarded as so many crimes.

Alexis had written from Naples to the senate and the bishops. He had lost the copies of these letters; but they were found in the hands of the female peasant, who had accompanied him in his flight. These letters were innocent; he does not seek in them to form a party, or to excite the first orders of the state against his father: he only implores them to preserve his rights.

Peter, however, with all the stern severity of his character, determined to bring his son to trial. In the mean time, he is informed that his first wife, Eudoxia, who had taken the veil in the convent of Souzdal, under the name of Helena, had renounced her religious habit; that her sister Maria, who was in the same convent, was in correspondence with this princess; and that both of them were cognizant of the plan for the young prince's escape. He immediately summoned to Moscow these two princesses, the confessor of Eudoxia, the archbishop of Rostof, and others who were supposed to have been confederate with them.

The roads from Petersburg were guarded with soldiers, so that none of the inhabitants could leave the city without detection. All persons found upon these roads, were commanded to be siezed, and conveyed to

the capital, unless they could produce a passport, signed by the hand of the prince or the senate. The inhabitants of Moscow were appointed to watch over one another as spies, to arrest those who wished to leave the city, and to denounce them to the senate. The penalties of death and confiscation of goods were pronounced against those who refused to obey this law.

By the questions which were put to the ecclesiastics that were brought from Souzdal, it was discovered that the mother of Alexis had conceived an attachment for general Glèbof; and that the lovers, having given a mutual promise of marriage, had exchanged rings. It was further discovered, that she had been excited to this bold action by Dosiphei, the archbishop of Rostof; this superstitious prelate having seen in a dream that he should return to court under the reign of her son.

It is reported that Eudoxia, before her arrival at Moscow, wrote a very affecting letter to the Tzar, in which she implored him to pardon her crime, and to spare her the shame of an ignominious death. She was closely interrogated, and then transferred to the judgment of the clergy: her life was spared, but she was confined in a monastery, after having been scourged by two of the nuns. Dosiphei was degraded from his office, and reserved for punishment.

At the same time, the confidents of the Tzarovitch, underwent a strict examination. One of these deposed, that Alexis had asserted: "A time will come, when in the absence of my father, I shall whisper a word in the ear of the bishops; they will tell it to the priests, who will repeat it to their flocks, and I shall be elevated to the throne, in spite of myself." This was the deposition of Ivan Aphanasief.

Everlakof stated that the prince had either forgotten, or wilfully omitted in his confession, certain confidential communications, and that he often took medicine to avoid meeting his father.

On the 15th of March, many of the accused underwent their punishment at Moscow. Kikin, long a favourite of the Tzar, Dosiphei, and one Rouss, were *broken alive* on the wheel. The body of Dosiphei

was cast into the fire; his head, and those of Kikin and of Rouss, were exposed at the ends of three poles. Glebof, the unhappy lover of Eudoxia, was impaled, after having submitted for weeks to the most cruel tortures.

Peter congratulated himself in the midst of these horrors, as though he had escaped from some great danger; and when some one complimented him on his having nipped the evil in the bud, he replied: "When fire meets with straw, it burns it; but if it encounters iron, it becomes extinct."

After the executions at Moscow, Peter set out for Petersburg. It was hoped, that all inquiries respecting the flight of his son were now ended, and that his wrath was fully appeased; but he immediately established a new commission, to which he summoned the chiefs of the clergy, with the principal civil and military officers of the state.

The mistress of Alexis was now interrogated, and the prince confronted with her; but she only proved that her lover had written to the emperor in the language of complaint against his father, and even acknowledged that the letter had never been sent.

Alexis asked time for recollection, and for committing to writing such particulars as he might have omitted in his confession. After two days of reflection, he acknowledged, that on a certain occasion, supposing the death of his father was near, he had formed a plan of repairing to Poland, as soon as he should be informed of his decease; that thence he intended to pass into the Ukraine, where his friend general Bauer had an army; that he had hoped to be then assisted by the Tzarovine Maria, and by the clergy; and that he reckoned on the favour of the people, by whom he had reason to believe he was beloved. Peter now interrogated his son himself. The young prince confessed to him, that when he had heard of a revolt in Mecklenburg, he had said with eagerness: "God grant that it may not end, according to my father's wishes;" and averred, that if this revolt had been real, and the rebels had invited him to place himself at their head, he would have consented, provided their number had been suf-

ficiently strong. He added, however, that, without an invitation, he should never have united with them in their designs.

The Tzar commanded the clergy and the judges to repair to the senate on the 4th of June. It is asserted, that he spent whole hours on his knees, imploring the Divine Being to teach him what the true interests of Russia required; but if his petitions had been sincere, his heart would have relented, and a milder sentence would have awaited his unfortunate son. The judges came to the senate on the appointed day. Alexis was brought before them; the letters of the Tzar to his son, the answers of the prince, and other documents necessary for conducting the trial, were read with a loud voice. After the reading, the Tzarovitch acknowledged his guilt, and was led back to prison.

When the prince had retired, a declaration of the Tzar to the clergy was read, signed with his own hand, and couched in these terms:—

"You are already sufficiently apprised of the crime which my son has committed against me, his father and sovereign, a crime almost unheard of in the world. Although, by virtue of the ecclesiastical and civil laws of Russia, which authorize a common citizen to judge his son, I might constitute myself his sole judge; yet the fear of God keeps me from asserting this right, and I tremble at the idea of framing a decision which shall be founded either on prejudice or mistake. It is natural for us to see less clearly than others, in matters which relate to ourselves. As, therefore, the wisest physicians are afraid to prescribe for their own maladies, so I explain to you the evil with which I am attacked, and intreat you to direct your attention to the cure. I should be dismayed with the apprehension of eternal death, if I were to undertake the cure myself, and the rather as I have, first by writing, and then by verbal communication, promised my son his pardon, if he would confess all his faults. But he has forfeited all claim to this pardon, by concealing many things of importance, and especially his design of revolt from his father and sovereign; and although this affair belongs to the department of the secular judges, yet, for my

better guidance, I require your advice, and submit myself to the word of God, which commands me to ask the divine law at the mouth of his priests. Thus, it is not a decision which we ask of the members of the clergy; we only intreat them, as interpreters of the divine word, to show us, by texts from the Holy Scriptures, the punishment which the crime of our son demands; an atrocious crime, which nearly resembles that of Absalom, the rebellious son of the Jewish monarch. You ought to furnish us with your answer, in writing, that it may serve to regulate our conduct, and set our conscience at rest." The declaration to the secular judges was couched in similar terms.

On the 25th of June, the chiefs of the clergy gave their opinion in writing. They first cited several passages of holy writ, in which disobedience to parents is threatened with the most awful punishment. They then adverted to the history of Absalom, and to the example of filial obedience which was given to us by Jesus Christ: and lastly, after having submitted the final decision to the wisdom of their sovereign, they proceeded in the following terms:—

If our truly clement monarch wishes to punish the offender according to the greatness of his crime, he has before him the examples which we present to him, and which we have derived from the Old Testament. If he wishes to indulge his clemency, he has the example of our heavenly Father, who received the penitent prodigal, and who prefers mercy to sacrifice. He has also the example of David, who said to his generals: Spare my son Absalom. Finally, the heart of the prince is in the hand of God: may he choose the better part!

The following questions were then put to the unfortunate prince:—

Why had he not followed the directions and obeyed the will of his father? Did he not know that there was an indecency, a sin, a shame in disobedience? Why had he lived in indolence, and without fear of punishment? Why had he sought the succession by any other means than obedience, when his father had pledged it to him?—To these puerile questions, Alexis replied with child-like simplicity: "That he well knew

disobedience was a sin; but that, delivered in his infancy to nurses and servants, he had only learnt to lie, and to occupy himself in vain amusements;—that he had learnt nothing better of his tutors and governors;—than when his father had written him to learn the German language, he had submitted with difficulty to the task, and had greatly neglected it;—that, accustomed to live with priests and monks, he had been taught to regard them as models, and that, through his daily intercourse with them, he had conceived a growing dislike to arms, and every other princely occupation;—that he had learnt even to dread the sight of his father, and to wish himself at a distance from him;—that having acquired a degree of freedom, when the administration of the state was confided to him, he had given himself still more to the indulgence of his vicious habits, and to the society of monks and priests;—that he was confirmed in his manner of life by Kikin;—that, sent by his father into foreign lands, he had made some improvement, but without correcting his depraved character and taste."

He added, "that he had feared his father, but not with a filial fear;—that on his return from Germany, he had wounded himself in the hand with a pistol, in order to avoid drawing before him, and that, interrogated by Kikin, on the cause of his wound, he had denied the truth;—that, being more and more estranged from his father, he had wished to obtain the throne by improper means, and foreign aid."

Such were the confessions of the unfortunate Alexis, confessions which, if they were not wrung from him by torture or violence, indicate the most childish simplicity and imprudence.

The judges of the prince, with one voice, condemned him to death. The extreme terror which the sentence wrought in his mind, induced a fit of apoplexy, which threatened to terminate his life. When consciousness returned, he sent for the Tzar; and, on his arrival, besought him in the name of God, to revoke the curse which he had pronounced upon him at Moscow, to pardon his crimes, to give him his paternal benediction, and to offer prayers in his behalf.

The Tzar is reported to have shed tears at the

mournful spectacle; but his heart relented too late. On the evening of the same day, the unfortunate prince expired.

Such were the circumstances of the death of Alexis, as published by order of the Russian court; but strong suspicions were entertained by many, that he was either poisoned, or beheaded in prison.

CHAP. V.

War with Germany and Sweden—Peace of Nynstadt—Improvements in the Empire—War with Asia—Manners and Death of Peter.

THE king of Sweden no longer cherished his former hatred to the Tzar. On the contrary, he began to view him in the light of a useful ally, and even a necessary prop to the new designs which occupied his mind. Always thirsting for vengeance, he wished to punish the king of Denmark, the elector of Hanover, and the king of Prussia, for the neglect with which they had treated him in his misfortunes.

Charles, having confided to baron Goertz full power of treating with Russia, passed with the remains of his army into Norway. The severity of the winter could not deter him from laying siege to Fredericstadt, but he fell a victim to the folly and madness of his ambition. While pressing the siege with his usual ardour, he received a ball in the temple, and immediately expired. This event happened December 30th, 1718.

On the demise of Charles, Ulric Eleonor was raised to the throne of Sweden. The new queen avowed the most pacific intentions towards the Tzar, but the other sovereigns of Europe entered into a powerful alliance against him. They even formed the chimerical project of depriving him of all his conquests, except Petersburg, Cronstadt, and Narva.

The emperor of Germany, excited by the court of London, was the first to display his hostility to the Tzar. He expelled the Russian minister from Vienna, without even giving him an audience of leave, and

required the Russian consul to leave Breslaw, though he had never interfered in political affairs. Peter selected the Jesuits as the object of his reprisals; he had admitted them into his kingdom a few years before, at the request of the emperor; he now drove them from all the cities and towns of his dominion.

While the allies were revelling in the hope of conquest, the Russian fleet took from the Swedes two ships of the line, and a vessel that was carrying corn to Stockholm; and transported into Finland an army of 26,000 men. But the queen of Sweden, elated by the offers of George I., who promised to send an English fleet to her relief, intimated to the Tzar, that she should break off all alliance with him, unless he consented to restore all the provinces which he had subdued.

Peter replied, by sending his grand fleet, commanded by general Apraxin, and a fleet of gallies under the orders of general Lessi, to attack Sweden on the north and the south of Stockholm. These two descents were crowned with the most complete success. Towns, whole villages, castles, and mansions were destroyed by Apraxin; mills, manufactories of metals, and magazines had the same fate; 15,000 houses were burnt, and the loss of the Swedes was estimated at several millions. Nor were the injuries which the general inflicted less severe. He could scarcely be said to make war: he burnt, he ravaged, he threw into the sea what he could neither carry away nor destroy.

The queen, terrified at the progress of the Russian army, entreated the Tzar to suspend hostilities; but her fears were relieved by the arrival of the English fleet under admiral Norris. Carteret, who had been sent ambassador into Sweden by the English government, wrote to the Tzar, to offer him the mediation of his master; and Norris added a letter to that of the minister. These dispatches were transmitted to the ministers of Russia, who were assembled in congress at Aland; but such was the tone of menace in which they were written, that they were rejected with scorn.

At the same time, Campredon arrived at Stockholm, as ambassador from France, and brought a subsidy to the Swedes. George I. recalled his ministers from

Petersburg, and the kings of Poland, Prussia, and Denmark, engaged to support Sweden against Russia.

Peter prepared to face the storm that was now raised against him. The nobility of all the provinces, all the Kozack regiments, and even the Kalmucks were commanded to hold themselves in readiness for the first order. The troops which had their winter quarters in Finland and Livonia, and the different vessels that were in the ports, were only to wait for the signal of attack.

Prince Galitzin, who commanded in Finland, sent a body of troops into western Bothnia. The Swedes took to flight at the approach of the Russians, who spread ruin and desolation in their march. The prince then entered with his fleet into the gulf, and compelled the Swedish admiral to retire with the loss of 800 men, 4 frigates, and more than 140 pieces of cannon.

In the mean time, the queen of Sweden was deposed, and her husband, Frederic, prince of Hesse-Cassel, was elevated to the throne in her stead. The new king sent his aid-de-camp to the Tzar, to announce his accession, and to express his ardent desire for the restoration of peace. Peter received the officer with honour, lodged him in one of his own mansions, and conducted him to Cronstadt, where he made him examine the harbour, the fortress, and the fleet: "I know," said he to him, "that it is not customary to shew fortresses to an enemy; but I feel pleasure in permitting you to see every thing for yourself, that you may spare your master the expense of employing spies."

Peter, persuaded that peace could not be long delayed, devised plans for retaining the prisoners that had been taken from Sweden. In their long captivity, they had almost forgotten an ungrateful country, which had been indifferent to their fate; while they had become attached to a land which provided them with subsistence.

Many of them discovered an ardent desire to remain in Russia, and dreaded a peace which would compel them to return to their country and homes, where nothing but disappointment and misery awaited them. The Tzar took advantage of these dispositions: he issued a proclamation, in which he permitted all those who

wished to remain in his empire to establish themselves in any of the towns and villages of Russia, provided however that, before the conclusion of the peace, they kept at a distance from the frontiers of Poland, and from the shores of the Baltic Sea. He confirmed to them and their posterity, the property which they had acquired by industry, marriage, or bequest; permitted them to engage in handicrafts, to carry on trade or commerce, to enter into the service of the nobles, or to devote themselves to the education of youth. He assured those who wished to embrace a military life, that they should never be compelled to fight against their country, and gave hope of employment to those whose talents qualified them for offices in the colleges, or law; he exempted from taxes, for many years, those who wished to apply themselves to clearing the land; preserved the privileges of nobility to those who had enjoyed them in their own country, and gave religious liberty, without distinction, to all. The Swedish monarch, finding the mediation of England was rejected, had recourse to that of France; but Peter adhered to the terms of peace which he had before offered.

Frederic perceived he could place no dependence upon the assistance of his allies, who had suffered his estates to be ravaged, without the power of affording them defence. He, therefore, urged the conclusion of a peace, which was ratified at Nynstadt, August 30th, 1721, on whatever conditions the Tzar might dictate. Russia preserved Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, a part of Carelia and Finland, as well as the isles of Oesel, of Dago, of Moen, &c.

At the conclusion of the peace, the senate and clergy proclaimed Peter emperor and father of his country. The ministers of France, of Poland, of Denmark, and of Prussia, congratulated him on his new title, and it was immediately recognized by the other European states.*

It is singular, that the most powerful sovereigns affect from pride a title which Augustus first assumed from modesty and reserve. That skilful usurper, who well

* *Holland* and England are said to have given it to him after the battle of *Pultava*.

knew the empire which words hold over mankind, refused the titles of dictator and consul, and contented himself with that of imperator or emperor, because it conveyed no idea of civil dignity and power. It was simply a title of honour, by which the soldiers had been accustomed to salute their victorious generals. The sovereigns of Russia, for a long time, bore the title of Tzar, a title which the Russians had formerly given to the emperors of Constantinople, and which they regarded as a contraction of the word Cesar: to this they joined that of *povelitel*, which answers literally to that of emperor; but Peter preferred expressing the same thing by a word derived from the Latin tongue.

The naval and military operations of the emperor, (for we may now designate him by that title) were never conducted with more spirit, than during the period the events of which we have now related; but he still found time for the internal administration of his empire.

Taxes had been hitherto levied according to the houses of the Russians; but Peter caused a census of his subjects to be taken, and a poll-tax to be enforced. He excited a spirit of ardent emulation in the army, by granting to inferior officers, the privileges of personal nobility; and by ennobling to the latest posterity, those who attained the rank of major. The common soldier, drawn from the class of serfs, was thus permitted to hope, that either himself, or his children, might one day rise, by their services, to one of the highest distinctions of the state.

A tribunal was established at Petersburg, for the maintenance of a police throughout the empire. A board, composed of an equal number of foreigners and natives, was entrusted with the affairs of commerce, and contributed greatly to their improvement. Swedes were employed in completing the labours of the mines, and the sovereign established a council for the regulation and superintendence of their works.

Peter, who dreaded the power of the clergy, abolished the office of patriarch, after having suffered it to lie in abeyance for twenty years. He established in its stead, the Holy Synod, to which all matters relating to religion were to be referred; and caused the

following oath to be administered to each of its members: "I swear to be a faithful and obedient servant of my natural and rightful sovereign. I acknowledge that he is the supreme judge of this ecclesiastical college."

While Peter was occupied in these and other innovations of the state, he did not forget the brutal pleasures to which he had long been addicted, and which ultimately shortened his life. He instituted assemblies, to which he admitted not only persons of quality of both sexes, but merchants, and even shipwrights, with their wives. These assemblies had laws, and those who transgressed them, were condemned to empty a large jug of brandy or wine; hence they were often converted into scenes of debauchery and riot.

Intoxication was common even at court. The emperor delighted to make those drunk, who prided themselves on their sobriety, or who had an antipathy to wine. A certain nobleman, from his aversion to vinegar, was never known to eat salad; Peter filled his mouth with it, and caused it to pass up his nose; the blood instantly flowed, and this victim of the prince's humour almost died of convulsions.

The character of Peter, the first emperor of Russia, bore a near resemblance to that of Ivan, the first of the Tzars. Both were of a despotic temper, and each of them deputed to another the externals of his power. Ivan was represented by the ancient Tzar of Kazan, and Peter by prince Fedor Romidanovski. This Fedor was a harsh and cruel wretch, who was always ready to punish, and who never failed to discover crimes in the accused. He pronounced his decisions without taking the opinion of another, and his favourite word was: "without appeal."

As eccentric in his private life, as he was severe in his judgments, he kept a huge bear in his apartments, who presented a glass filled with brandy and pepper to those who honoured him with a visit. If any one refused this compliment, or discovered signs of terror, he was sure to have his clothes torn, and his wig plucked off by this strange master of ceremonies.

It was to this fierce and capricious man that Peter, *his absence*, confided a share of his power; it was

on his cruelty that he depended as the means of abasing the pride of the nobles, and of keeping the people in awe; it was to him, as to a sovereign, that he rendered an account of his campaigns; it was from him that he received the praises and the rewards of the victories which he won.

Peter, having compelled the northern powers to conclude a peace on his own terms, turned his arms to the conquest of the east. The Russian caravans, on their route from Asia, were attacked and plundered, and the merchants slain; to prevent the continuance of these losses, he had long thought of gaining forcible possession of some towns on the Caspian Sea. His army, which he assembled near Astrachan, was composed of 30,000 of those veteran troops, which had conquered the Swedes, and of a number of irregular forces, Tartars Kozacks, and Kalmucks, which were not, however, to be despised in a contest with barbarians. The cavalry had orders to lead the van; the emperor and Catherine embarked with the infantry; while Apraxin was entrusted with the command of the fleet.

The army was landed near the gulf of Agrachan, and after several skirmishes on the road, encamped before Tarkou, where the emperor received deputies from the governor of Derbent. It then pursued its route through the defiles which form the mountains of Rinak, and entered the country which stretches along the shores of the Caspian sea.

This country contained only a few villages, and had for its chief a Tartar, who took the title of Sultan. This foolish prince assembled an army of 6,000 men, and attacked the whole Russian force; he was put to flight, and pursued to his capital, which was immediately plundered and delivered to the flames.

After this easy victory, Peter arrived at Derbent. The governor, at the head of the principal inhabitants, came out to meet him, and presented him with the silver keys of the town. The emperor then made his entrance amidst the discharge of artillery and the acclamations of the people. He confirmed the governor in his authority, and left in the castle a garrison of 2,000 men.

Peter would have pushed his conquests still further,

but the transports that were to have conveyed ammunition and victuals to his army, were shattered with a tempest, and their cargoes destroyed. He again took the road to Astrachan, and made a triumphant entry into Moscow.

In the following year, (May 7th, 1724) Catherine was crowned empress of all the Russians. The emperor, who was distinguished by rigid economy, spared no expense to render this pageant august and magnificent. The robe of the empress was made at Paris; that of Peter was embroidered by the hands of his wife, and it was the only splendid article of dress that he possessed; the nobles and their ladies who were invited to the solemnity, were clad in their richest attire.

The emperor, having arrived at the church, and taken his seat on the throne, held the sceptre with one hand, and taking the crown in the other, placed it upon the head of Catherine. Thus the obscure captive of Marienburg, was adorned with the insignia of imperial power, and received honours which had never before been confirmed by a Russian sovereign upon his consort: the festival of the coronation continued without interruption for six months.

But Catherine was miserable in the midst of imperial grandeur and pomp. The health of her consort visibly declined; and in proportion as his disorder increased, his temper became irritable and severe. Weaned from him in her affections, she formed a disgraceful amour with Moens, the chamberlain of her court; it was discovered, and from that time, Peter never spoke to her but in public.

The feast of blessing the waters was celebrated at Petersburg, January 17th, 1725. On this occasion, the emperor, though indisposed, was not only present, but afforded his assistance. He caught a severe cold, and a fever ensued. A painful disorder with which he had long been afflicted, began to exhibit threatning symptoms, and in ten days exhausted his strength. He perceived himself that the attack was mortal; and, in spite of his firmness, grief extorted from him the most violent and piteous exclamations. "You see in me" said he to his attendants, "how miserable an animal is man."

All the physicians of the capital met in consultation. They were desirous to inspire a hope which they themselves feared to cherish. Sometimes indeed, the disorder seemed to yield to the remedies which they prescribed, but their patient still declined.

Perceiving that his end drew near, Peter received the extreme unction of the Greek Church, and sent for the princess Anne, that she might receive his last commands. But when she arrived, his left side had become palsied, and his utterance failed. He died on the 28th of January, at three o'clock in the morning, aged 52 years, after a reign of 43 years.

He left three daughters: Anne, married to the Duke of Holstein; Elizabeth, who afterwards reigned; and Natalia, a child of six years, who expired a few days after her father's decease.

Some writers have reported that Peter died of poison, but this report has no foundation in truth. He fell a victim to disease, aggravated, if not induced by habits of debauchery, which he had contracted in his early years, and which, towards the close of his life, he indulged without restraint.

In his last moments, it is said, he reflected on the irregularities of his life, with extreme regret, confessed that he had shed much innocent blood, and mentioned his conduct towards Alexis with the utmost concern; but expressed a vain hope, that the benefits he had conferred upon his country, would induce the "Judge of all" to pardon his crimes.

CHAP. VI.

Details of the Emperor's Private Life.

In the preceding sketch of the reign of Peter, we have occasionally glanced at the habits of his private life. A few additional illustrations of this subject may serve to amuse the reader, and to furnish him with a more correct knowledge of this distinguished monarch.

He wished to render formidable the majesty of the throne, but he deprived that throne of all that invests it with external dignity and importance. The people had to recognize their sovereign in a man who was simply clad, and whose manners accorded with his attire; who mingled with mechanics and seamen, adopting their manners and pleased with their fare; who, armed with the penalties of regal justice, delighted to inflict them in his own person, with his fingers, his feet, and even his cane. A retail merchant of the present time, would scarcely deign to lodge in the humble mansion which Peter erected, when he was laying the foundations of Petersburg. A bed, a table, a lathe, some papers, and a few books, constituted the whole of the furniture. On the shortest days of winter, he was always awaked at four o'clock in the morning; and he sometimes employed in conference with his ministers, the time which the greater part of mankind devoted to repose. At six o'clock, he was to be found either in the senate, or at the admiralty. It seemed that he pronounced against all persons that he honoured with his confidence, this terrible sentence: You shall sleep no more!

He dined at one o'clock. His table was more than frugal. His favourite dishes were those of the people; cabbage-soup, gruels, a sucking-pig, with cream sauce, cold roast beef, with pickled cucumbers, lampreys and ham. He accompanied this moderate repast with the liquors of his country, quass, beer, hydromel, and the wines of Hungary and France.

Instead of the splendid repasts of the ancient Tzars, at which the dishes were counted by hundreds, he formed clubs with his ministers, generals, and favourites. Each one paid his reckoning, which was commonly a ducat per head, or 6s. 8d. of English money; and the Tzar pretended, that even from this small sum a profit was derived to his cook. Sometimes indeed the table was a little more sumptuously provided, and wine was drunk in abundance. Peter compelled the most sober of his associates to drink; he forced those to drink whose secrets he wished to *penetrate.* An imprudent word, uttered in a moment

of intoxication, gave occasion to the most rigid inquiries, and whole families were sometimes ruined by the disclosures of intemperance and riot.

Peter received the ministers of foreign states with an entire neglect both of ceremony and place, declaring that they were sent to his person, and not to a palace or hall. When the Prussian ambassador wished to present his credentials, he was conducted on board a Russian ship. Having inquired for the Tzar, he was pointed out to him, seated on the top of a mast, and in the act of adjusting the rigging of the vessel. Peter called to him to ascend, and take a seat by his side; but Printz* excused himself on the ground of his ignorance of nautical affairs. The Tzar descended by the help of a ladder of ropes, and gave upon the deck the audience which he had offered to give upon the mast.

Peter one day invited certain ambassadors to accompany him in a Dutch packet-boat, from Petersburg to Cronstadt. He undertook the office of pilot himself; and when the vessel had about half completed her voyage, she was overtaken by a tremendous storm. One of the ambassadors importuned him to land: we are about to perish, said he, and your majesty will have to answer for my life to the king, my master. Peter at first replied with a shout of laughter, and then added: "Sir, if you are drowned, we shall all perish together, and no one will be left to answer for your Excellency at your court."

The Tzar was one day taking a ride with his general of police. They had occasion to pass a small wooden bridge, the planks of which were found to be in disorder. While these were being replaced, Peter was obliged to alight; and, impatient at the delay, he inflicted several blows of his cane upon his companion, enjoining him to keep the roads in better repair. When the bridge was refitted, he remounted his chariot, and placing the general by his side, said to him, as though nothing unpleasant had occurred: "Be seated, brother."

He often descended to minute details in household affairs. He was fond of Lemburg cheese; it was his ordinary dessert; but his servants also loved it, and he

* The name of the Prussian minister.

perceived that it was never restored to his table in the same state in which it had been removed. He one day took its dimensions with his compass, inserted these in his memorandums, and enjoined the president of his kitchen to preserve it untouched. On the morrow, the cheese was again produced, but greatly diminished in size. "It was not in this state," exclaimed the emperor, "that I yesterday left my cheese." "I know nothing about it," replied the president; "I have not measured it." "But I have measured it," rejoined Peter; and immediately rising from his seat, he inflicted upon him several blows of his cane.

These familiar corrections, which the emperor so often inflicted with his own hand, were sometimes attended with the most fatal results. On a certain occasion, Leblond, a French architect, whom he had procured from Paris, had the misfortune to incur his displeasure; and in his fury he struck the artist with his cane. Leblond, who, in the lofty spirit of his nation, regarded such treatment as an indelible disgrace, was immediately seized with a slow fever which, in the course of the following year, terminated his life.

Peter had sometimes the folly to vent his fury on inanimate creatures. Designing, one day, to exhibit a proof of his skill in nautical science, he embarked in a small vessel on the lake Ladoga, which is often tempestuous, and which was then in a state of more than usual agitation. Alarmed at the danger which threatened him, he returned in haste to the shore; but being angry with the waves for having prevented the display of his science, he sent for the executioner of the town, and ordered him to give the knoot to the intractable lake.

There were seasons, however, when the voice of reason had power to calm the passions of the Tzar. At one period of his reign, he decreed that the peasants of Petersburg and Novgorod should be employed in digging the canal of Ladoga; and the senate assembled, in order to publish the decree. Dolgurof, one of its members, exclaimed, that this would be to consummate the ruin of two provinces, which had already endured the most unmerited wrongs, and that the language of remonstrance should be addressed to the Tzar. He was

told in reply, that it was too late, forasmuch as the imperial signature had been given to the decree. But notwithstanding this reply, Dolgurof, fired with patriotic zeal, seized the paper on which the obnoxious law was inscribed, and tore it in pieces before his astonished fellows. Peter soon after entered. The procuror-general, who is president of the senate, informed him, with trembling lips, of the daring act which Dolgurof had just committed. His anger was immediately kindled, and the affrighted senators dreaded the result. But Dolgurof, whose courage rose with his danger, stood unmoved, and addressed his sovereign in the following memorable terms: "Repress thy fury, O prince. I cannot believe that, following the example of Charles XII., thou meditatest the ruin of thy empire. Hast thou weighed the consequences of ordering the depopulation of two provinces, which thon knowest have already been desolated with all the horrors of war? I am not insensible to the importance of the canal that thou hast projected; but select I beseech thee, from each of the governments, a just proportion of victims to the good of the state. Employ in these disastrous works, the prisoners which thou hast taken from Sweden, and destroy not an infant country, which thou hast had the glory to create." As the faithful senator thus proceeded, Peter became more tranquil; and, after some moments of reflection, replied, "That which he has just stated is entitled to consideration. Stay the proclamation of the decree, until my intentions shall be further known."—These intentions were to employ great numbers of the Swedes in the labour of this canal.

On occasion of the death of his son, by Catherine, Peter shut himself up at Peterhof, and remained there three days and three nights, without taking the least nourishment, and forbidding all invasion of his solitude, on pain of death. During this period, the affairs of state were wholly neglected, the councils had no chiefs, and the generals waited for their orders, without receiving them. The empress, afflicted both as a mother and a wife, and at the same time deeply interested in the welfare of the state, knocked in vain at the door of the Tzar: The ascendancy which she had so long maintained over him was

lost in the tempest of his grief. In these circumstances, she had recourse to Dolgurof, whose courage and fidelity she had already proved. Early on the morrow, this noble-minded courtier repairs to the chamber of the Tzar. He knocks, but receives no answer: he knocks again, but all is silence. Determined to brave the fury of the monarch, he commands him to open, and, upon his refusal, threatens to break the door: "I open," exclaims the Tzar, "but it is for the purpose of depriving thee of thy head." The door is opened. Dolgurof enters with a calm and majestic air: "I come," said he, "in the name of the senate, to request that thou wilt appoint an emperor, since thou professest to renounce thy crown." Peter is insensibly awed by the manner and address of his virtuous subject; he embraces him, and bedews him with his tears. Dolgurof conducts him to Catherine, and presents him to the senate: affairs return to their wonted course.

Peter was a decided enemy to all monkish imposture, and popular superstition. He knew that the people assembled in a certain church at Petersburg, to adore an image of the virgin, that was asserted to shed tears. He repaired to this church, ordered the image to be taken down, and to be examined with the nicest care. The imposture was immediately detected. The weeping image, which was made of wood, had a double pannel. Between the two boards, there was a vessel of oil, which bordered on small holes, perforated at the angle of the eyes. The heat of the waxen tapers, lighted around the image, caused the oil to boil, and to descend, drop by drop, through the channels which had been prepared for its conveyance. Peter exposed this mechanical deception to the people, and placed the image among the curiosities of his cabinet. The author of the fraud was discovered, and punished with the greater severity, because it had a seditious aim: it was intended to persuade the people, that the virgin expressed by her tears, the horror which she felt at the laying of the foundation of Petersburg.

The emperor, having acquired some knowledge of astronomy, frequently conversed on this subject with his *courtiers*, in order to expand their ideas, and to convince

them of the folly of astrological science. He ordered it to be publicly announced in 1715, that an eclipse of the sun would happen on a certain day, in order to make it apparent that this event was not ominous of any public disaster, or divine judgment.

Peter was a severe economist. The expenses of his house were fixed, and defrayed with the utmost punctuality and care. He allotted certain sums for the army, the fleet, the government, the buildings, and the manufactures; and, without the enjoyment of a large revenue, had always money at command for inferior expences, and for new projects that he might form for the welfare of the state.

Both Russians, and foreigners who were attached to the service of Russia, aspired to the honour of having the Tzar for god-father to their children. If he had accompanied this honour with large presents, he would often have been obliged to decline it. He, therefore, contented himself, on these occasions, with presenting the mother, whatever might be her condition, with a kiss and a ducat.

It must be conceded, however, that the economy of Peter sometimes degenerated into parsimony and meanness. Though the sovereign of a vast empire, he wore soled shoes, and mended woollen stockings; and would borrow the wig of the first comer, in order to shield his head from the cold. Having occasion to lodge in the neighbourhood of a forge, he learnt the blacksmith's art, and wrought a quantity of iron with his own hands. On his return to Moscow, he repaired to the owner of the forge, who resided in the capital, and demanded the exact price of his labour. It was paid to him; and he immediately employed the money in the purchase of a pair of new shoes, which he exhibited with triumph, exclaiming, "Behold the shoes which I have earned with the sweat of my brow."

Peter, unlike most sovereigns, was averse to hunting of every kind. "It is an amusement," said he, "which I will never take, while I have either enemies to conquer, or subjects to govern." He was an enemy to cards, and to gaming of every description, declaring, that as gamblers lived by mutual deception, it was im-

possible for them to cherish any useful taste or generous pursuit.

The same prince who, in his first voyage to Holland, handled the axe and the saw, wished also to use the more delicate instruments of the surgeon. He made dissections, and performed chirurgical operations under the guidance of the celebrated anatomist Ruysch. One day, as he was surveying in the anatomical collection of Boerhaave, a body that had been preserved in spirits of turpentine, either the strong effluvia, or the horror of the spectacle, nauseated the stomachs of some of his attendants. The Tzar, wishing to overcome this natural antipathy in his courtiers, compelled them to bite the muscles which had excited their disgust. It was thus that, incapable of preserving a just moderation even in his most laudable tastes, he carried them to an excess which bordered on ferocity itself.

All kinds of occupation were included in the sphere of his activity. During the moments of leisure, which he stole from sleep, he was sometimes employed in literary labours, and translated many works written on the arts; among others, the Architecture of Le Clerc, and the art of constructing dams and mills, by Sturm. These translations, made for his own private use, are to be found among his manuscripts which have been preserved.

In the Persian expedition, Peter passed by Kazan, and had the curiosity to visit the ruins of Bolgar, formerly the capital of Great Bulgaria. Among these, he found funeral monuments, with inscriptions in Arabic and Persian, which he caused to be copied and translated, and gave orders that the monuments themselves should be preserved with the most scrupulous attention and care.

In concluding these brief sketches of the Tzar's private life, it may be proper to present the reader with a summary description of his person and character.

Peter was tall of stature, and of a bold and majestic aspect, but sometimes disfigured with convulsions, which altered his features. He was endued with great vigour, both of body and mind. Though he could not be said to possess the higher powers of genius, since he sought *to copy, not* to originate; yet his intellect was acute,

and his judgment sound. He was master of most of the mechanical arts, and had a superficial acquaintance with general science. His personal courage was undisputed; he sported with the elements of danger, and rushed into the thickest of the fray. His activity, aided by the strength of his constitution, was incredible: such were the severity of his application, and the rapidity of his movements, that he almost seemed to annihilate space, and multiply time. The native vigour of his understanding, raised him superior to the prejudices of his country; the inflexible decision of his character, awed his subjects into submisson, and imparted success to his designs.

But what shall be said of the moral qualities of this prince? His courage often degenerated into foolhardiness; his decision into folly and madness. He sought to be feared, rather than to be loved. His manners were ferocious, his pleasures brutal, his resentments savage, and his condescensions mean. He consulted the glory rather than the happiness of his subjects; he was lavish of their blood, if not of their treasure, and raised the trophies of his ambition on the foundation of their lives.* In a word, he was despotic as a monarch, inconstant as a husband, cruel as a father, and capricious as a friend. This dark picture, as the preceding account of his reign will have shewn, might be relieved by some lighter shades, and more favourable tints, but it is substantially correct; and it is a proof of the folly and corruption of mankind, that the epithet "great" should ever be conferred on such men as Peter I.

* Witness the building of Petersburg.

CATHERINE.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1725.—DIED 1727.

PETER, during the closing scene of his illness, was desirous to write his last will; but his hand, palsied in death, could only trace a few trembling and imperfect

lines. These words alone were legible: Commit every thing—It was evident that he intended every thing relating to the empire; but to whom did this dying charge relate?

The principal personages of the state, had taken every possible precaution to have the emperor's death announced to them, as soon as its occurrence could be known. They foresaw that Mentchikof would strain every effort to raise Catherine to the throne that, in quality of her favourite, he might guide the helm of the state; but they hated him, not more on account of his humble origin, than for his unbounded avarice and pride. It was, therefore, their wish to remove both him and Catherine from the government; to immure the latter in a convent, and to assign the former Siberia for his abode; to proclaim the young prince Peter* emperor, and during his minority, to engross the administration of the empire; to dismiss the foreigners whom Peter had admitted into his service, and to restore the ancient usages which he had abolished with so unsparing a hand. But Mentchikof, by the adoption of the most artful measures, had ensured the disappointment of their wishes and plans. Having gained possession of the imperial treasure, he lavished its riches among the clergy and soldiers, and thus secured the succession of Catherine, through the medium of the most influential classes of the state.

No sooner had the leaders of the state assembled in the imperial palace of Petersburg, than Catherine appeared with Mentchikof, the duke of Holstein, and others of her train, and proposed herself as empress. She then withdrew, in order, it was said, to enable the nobles to deliberate on the legitimacy of her right to the throne; but as soon as they appeared divided in their sentiments on this subject, Mentchikof gave the word of command, at which the guards, whom he had previously bribed, marched out, exclaiming: Long live our empress Catherine! While this scene was transpiring, she presented herself at the window, to the populace, and was universally greeted as the rightful *successor* to the Russian throne. Thus, for the first

* Son of the deceased Alexis.

time, since Olga, a woman sat upon the throne of Russia, a woman of obscure and ignoble descent, who, by the most singular vicissitudes of fortune, was raised to the sovereignty of the most extensive empire in the world.

The history of Catherine's infancy and childhood, is still enveloped in uncertainty and doubt; and even the year and place of her birth cannot be accurately determined. It is probable, however, that she was born a Livonian, and descended from vulgar parents; that, having lost them when very young, she was taken into the house of Gluck, the provost of Marienburg, where she served as housemaid and nurse to the children, and formed an attachment to a soldier, whom she soon after married, and who was slain during the siege of the town. It is more certain that, after the taking of Marienburg by the Russians, the provost presented himself to the Russian General Scheremetef, in order to obtain a mitigation of the horrors of conquest;—that on this occasion, Catherine accompanied her master, and, by her beauty, attracted the general's notice, who took her to his home, clothed her in better attire, and treated her with great kindness. During her residence here, she was seen by Mentchikof, who being smitten by her charms, took her to himself and deprived Scheremetef of this part of his spoil. Peter, who once happened to see the fair stranger at Mentchikof's, was in his turn allured by her beauty, commanded Mentchikof to resign her to his possession, gave her servants to attend her, and conferred on her the title of "her grace." She was now baptized into the Russian church, made it her principal business to study the character of Peter, and gained upon his affections from day to day. It is probable that he privately married her in 1707, but that he first publicly declared her his wife in 1711. He instituted an order of knighthood in her honour, appointed her coronation in 1724, and, as we have already seen, placed the crown upon her head with his own hands. Such were the fortunes of this extraordinary woman.

It is by no means improbable, that Peter himself, if he had been granted a longer life, would have de-

clared Catherine his successor. A great part of the nation was strongly prepossessed in her favour, and the soldiers, in particular, were her firm adherents and friends. These, it is said, on receiving the tidings of Peter's death, exclaimed with one consent, "If, however, our father be dead, our mother is still alive." Discontented persons, indeed, were not wanting, who saw with extreme dislike, that a woman of mean descent, who was not even a native of Russia, had ascended the throne; yet the dissatisfaction of numbers of the great, arose less from aversion to Catherine, than from hatred to Mentchikof. *

The first acts of Catherine's reign, were highly popular. She reduced the capitation-tax, ordered the gibbets to be cut down, which Peter had erected in great numbers, and recalled a great majority of those who, during the late reign, had been banished into Siberia, paid the troops their arrears, restored several privileges to the Kozacks, and made no changes among the officers of state. She first conferred the order of St. Alexander Nevski, which the emperor had instituted at the close of his reign, as a reward for talents and services, and formed the academy of sciences, which he had commanded to be established. Among the most distinguished members of this new institute, were Delisle, Baer, and the Bernoullis, whose names are still respected by the learned in Europe.

Catherine entered into an alliance with the German emperor, on condition that, in case of an attack, they should afford mutual assistance with an army of 30,000 men, and that each should guarantee the territories of the other. The particular motive to this alliance, was the desire she felt to assist her son-in-law,† the duke of Holstein, in the recovery of his possession, the duchy of Sleswick, which Denmark had recently added

* Mentchikof, in his youth, was either a pastry-cook, or one of the lowest menial servants at the court of the Tzar Peter, observing him to be a shrewd lad, admitted him among his Poteschnii, and Mentchikof was artful enough to gain so complete a knowledge of his master's humours and temper, that though Peter often treated him with great harshness, yet he contrived to preserve the Tzar's favour to the day of his death; and this he did chiefly by admiring foreign customs, and endeavouring to place the Russian usages and manners in a ridiculous light.

† He had married the princess Anne, Catherine's daughter.

to her dominions. She, therefore, made the most urgent remonstrances to the Danish court, and ordered a fleet to be fitted out to enforce them; but the senate and nation were averse to the prosecution of the war, and Catherine died without a battle having been fought in favour of her son-in-law.

The bounds of the empire were also enlarged under Catherine, by the homage paid her by the Kabinskian Tartars, and the submission of the Georgian prince to Russia.

The empress died 17th May, 1727, at the age of thirty-eight, or thirty-nine years. Some historians affirm that she was poisoned by Mentchikof; but others assert, with much greater probability, that she fell a victim to habits of intoxication, as well as to the singular custom of passing whole nights on sledges in the open air.

Previously to her death, Catherine was persuaded to make her will. She appointed Peter, the son of Alexis, her successor. If he died without heirs, the crown was to descend to the princess Anne, wife of the duke of Holstein, and to her posterity. After Anne, was named the princess Elizabeth, and last of all, Natalia, daughter of Alexis. Peter, till he attained his sixteenth year, was to be under the tutelage of the princesses Anne and Elizabeth, the duke of Holstein, and other members of the council.

It is affirmed, that Catherine could neither read nor write; her daughter Elizabeth wrote for her, and it was this princess who signed her will. She was beneficent; recognized with pleasure the persons who had known her in the time of her obscurity, and honoured them with marks of her favour. She knew how to temper the severity of her husband, and saved the lives of many whom he had condemned to death. She possesssed a sound judgment, and good sense; but nothing of that vivacity of imagination, and brilliancy of genius, which have sometimes been ascribed to her. The reason that she was so greatly beloved by the Tzar, was her extreme good humour, which, like oil cast upon the waves, calmed his passions, and soothed his pains.

PETER II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1727.—DIED 1730.

PETER ascended the throne at the age of twelve years. The regency was composed of the princesses Anne and Elizabeth, of the duke of Holstein, of prince Mentchikof, and of five senators. But Mentchikof, who could bear no rival in authority, and one of whose daughters, according to the will of Catherine, was to be espoused to the Tzar, seized upon the person of Peter, and lodged him in his own palace.

A party, favourable to the duchess of Holstein, and who wished to raise her to the throne, had been formed during the late reign. Mentchikof caused all its members to be sought out, apprehended, and punished. Not content with the espousal of his daughter to the Tzar, he hoped to marry the sister of the young prince to his son; and, to free himself from the principal objects of his jealousy and fear, he pursued and harassed the duke of Holstein and his wife, until he compelled them to leave Russia in disgust.

But Mentchikof did not stand long on this pinnacle of power. While he was bearding with impunity all that was great in the empire, a mere youth was working his downfal, in secret, and with success. Ivan Dolgoruki, the daily companion of the young emperor, took frequent occasion to instil prejudices against Mentchikof, into the mind of Peter, and to implore him to burst the shackles which this haughty subject had imposed upon his youth. Dolgoruki's insinuations were the more welcome, as Peter cherished no affection for Maria Mentchikof, his bride elect, and openly avowed that he wished the connection to be dissolved. Mentchikof, who had preserved the favour of Peter the Great, and who had been all-powerful under Catherine, was now overthrown, and obliged, with his whole family, to depart for Beresof, in Siberia, 1727. His property was confiscated, and the treasures which he had

amassed were poured into the imperial coffers, from which the greater part of them had been taken.*

Mentchikof endured his reverses with great fortitude. Banished from a luxurious capital to the barren and icy wilds of the north, forsaken and scorned by the men who had worshipped him in the days of his grandeur and power, reduced from a state of regal affluence to a daily allowance of a few rubles, his character seemed to be refined and chastened by adversity. He died in 1729, of an attack of apoplexy. His son and daughter were recalled from exile in the following reign.

The family of Dolgoruki took the place of the degraded favourite, and might be said to reign under the name of the Tzar. Eudokhia, the grandmother of the sovereign, was recalled to court, and declared innocent of the crimes that had been laid to her charge. She refused, however, to renounce her religious habit, and selected a neighbouring monastery for the place of her retreat. Moscow, raised from neglect and ruin, became the residence of the prince. The Kozacks of the Ukraine attempted to rebel, but were subdued by the regular troops. The imperial treasure was enriched, but not at the expense of suffering and oppression. The canal of Ladoga being completed, gave a new impetus to trade. The empire was crowned with plenty, security, and peace. The nobles, indeed, murmured at the election of the Dolgorukies, but the nation was happy, and has ranked Peter II. among the best of its sovereigns.

The young Dolgoruki had a sister remarkable both for her beauty and accomplishments. He offered her in marriage to the emperor, who, it is said, had already set his affections upon her. The espousals were celebrated with great pomp: the court was absorbed in feasts and amusements; already the day was appointed for the marriage. The Dolgorukies beheld themselves established around the throne: all either adored their fortune, or trembled at their power—but at the moment they were touching their highest point of ele-

* Consisting of 9 000,000 of rubles in bank notes and securities, 1,000,000 in cash, 105lb. of gold utensils, 420lb. of silver plate, and precious stones to the value of about a *million*.

vation, the emperor was seized with the small-pox, and expired.

Peter II. departed this life in the night, between the 29th and 30th of January, 1730, in the arms of Ostermann. With him, the male race of the family of Romanof became extinct, with him the fairest hope of the nation was blighted and destroyed. His intellectual capacity was good; Catherine had taken as much care of his education, as if he had been her son; his temper was mild, and his conduct beneficent and kind. The day after his accession to the throne, he wrote to his sister in the following terms: "It having pleased God to call me in my tender youth to be the emperor of all Russia, my principal care shall be to acquire the reputation of a good sovereign, by governing my people in righteousness, and in the fear of God, by hearkening to the complaints of the poor and distressed, and granting them relief; and, after the laudable example of Vespasian, letting no man go sorrowful from me." What a happiness for Russia, if this emperor, always inspired with these sentiments, and guided by these principles, had attained to an extreme old age! How inscrutable the mysteries of that providence, which has so often removed the best of princes in early life!

Ivan Dolgoruki, having witnessed the last moments of the emperor, left the imperial chamber with his sword drawn, proceeded to the hall, where the nobles were assembled, and exclaimed: Long live the empress Dolgoruka!—but, finding that no one united in the cry, he sheathed his sword, and retired in disappointment and confusion.

The high council, the senate, and the generals, assembled to dispose of the throne. After various discussions, they agreed to offer it to Anne, dowager duchess of Courland, and daughter of Ivan, step-brother of Peter I. But before announcing to her, her election, they prepared a number of articles, which she was to be compelled to sign, and which were in substance, as follows: That the new empress, without the consent of the high council, should not be permitted either to make peace, or to declare war; to levy taxes, or to dispose

of revenues; to punish any gentleman, unless he should be well convicted of crime; to part with, or alienate any lands of the crown; to choose either a husband or successor; in a word, that an empire, long despotic, should be converted into an aristocracy, at the will of the nobles.

ANNE.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1730. DIED 1740.

THREE deputies of the assembly, having carried these conditions of election to the duchess, in Courland, extracted from her a promise to observe them, and never to introduce into Russia, her favourite and chamberlain, whose name was Biren.

It was soon perceived that Anne had no intention to fulfil her word; for, a few days after her arrival in Petersburg, Biren followed, and was immediately admitted as the principal favourite at court.

An intrigue, which was directed by Ostermann, chancellor of the empire, was the means of investing the empress with absolute power. The Dolgorukies,* who had been the most active in limiting the power of the new sovereign, were arrested, and banished to different parts of Siberia. The princes Galitzin, who had held the first places in the high-council, were banished from the court, and remained in disgrace during the whole of the reign.

Biren obtained the title of count, was decorated with the order of St. Andrew, and made duke of Courland; but he sullied all his honours, by the most inhuman conduct. It is impossible to determine the number of wretches, who perished by torture, or were driven into exile, during his savage administration.† It is

* They were charged with maintaining a traitorous correspondence with foreigners, during their exile, and were afterwards put to death with the severest torture.

† The number of exiles is said to have amounted to more than 20,000.

asserted that he often concealed himself in a closet, while the empress presided at the council, and that she was obliged to come to him in this concealment, that she might receive his commands. It is moreover declared, that his imperial mistress would often throw herself at his feet, imploring him to soften the rigours of his government, but that he would resist her entreaties, and pursue his brutal career.

In 1731, Anne, who declined all thoughts of marriage, adopted her niece, the daughter of the duke of Mecklenburg, and of her sister Catherine. This princess, who was only twelve years of age, abjured the protestant religion, and assumed the name of Anne, instead of that of Catherine, which she had received at her baptism. The empress soon after selected a husband for her, in the person of prince Antony Ulric, of Brunswick, who arrived at Petersburg in 1733. He came to Russia to seek the most brilliant fortune; he found there misery, imprisonment, and a lingering death.

The election of a king of Poland, the conclusion of a treaty with Persia, and a war with the Turks, were the affairs that occupied Anne, in the first years of her reign.

The French ministry, in 1733, made great exertions to reinstate on the Polish throne, Stanislaus Leschinsky, father-in-law to Louis XV.; but Russia and Austria so powerfully aided the cause of the other candidate, Augustus, elector of Saxony, that he gained the advantage of his arrival, and ascended the Polish throne, under the name of Augustus III. The adherents of Stanislaus, who had retired with him to Dantzic, were obliged to submit to the Russians; Stanislaus himself was reduced to the necessity of seeking safety in flight.

The provinces which Peter the Great had taken from Persia, served only to drain the resources of the empire. The Russian court, therefore, only waited for an opportunity to divest itself of these ruinous possessions with honour. Such an opportunity occurred in 1734, when they were ceded to Kouli-Khan, in exchange for certain commercial advantages.

The war which Russia maintained with the Turks,

and which was confided to the direction of general Munich, has but few claims to attention. It was brilliant in exploits, but expensive both in money and blood. It cost the Russians 15,000 of their veteran troops, but procured for them no solid advantage. Though they subdued Moldavia, made themselves masters of Azof and Otchakof, yet they were happy to restore these conquests as the price of a peace which they obtained in 1740.

On the 20th of August, 1740, was born Ivan, the son of the princess Anne, and of the prince of Brunswick. The empress adopted him, took him from the hands of his parents, and lodged him in an apartment contiguous to her own. A short time after, she fell sick, and perceiving her end approaching, appointed the infant prince her successor. The parents of Ivan appeared to be his natural and rightful guardians during his minority, but Biren rested not a moment until he had made himself regent. Partly by intrigue, partly by terror, and partly by the assistance of Munich, he obtained an address, in the name of all the states, which implored him to accept the regency, until the majority of the young prince, which was fixed at the age of seventeen years. It was necessary that this document should be signed by the empress, whose last moments were now at hand. She was surrounded and besieged by the creatures of Biren; her niece, who attentively watched her, was not suffered to speak to her: she signed the instrument in perfect ignorance of its contents.*

The court of Russia, during the first years of Anne's reign, prided itself on eclipsing all the other courts of Europe, in splendour and magnificence; but it merely paraded a luxury without taste. Here was to be seen a beau, clad in a magnificent garb, with stockings dirty and torn, and an old wig thrown in disorder over his head; there, a belle, arrayed in diamonds and the richest stuffs, disfigured, rather than adorned with the fashions of France, and drawn in a coach with lean horses, and a driver covered with rags. In the interior of their mansions, pride and dirtiness vied for the do-

* Other historians assert, that after having read and signed the act, she exclaimed, "*Biren, Biren*, thou art rushing upon thy own destruction."

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The war which Russia maintained with the Tu

and which was confided to the direction of general Munich, has but few claims to attention. It was brilliant in exploits, but expensive both in money and blood. It cost the Russians 15,000 of their veteran troops, but procured for them no solid advantage. Though they subdued Moldavia, made themselves masters of Azof and Otchakof, yet they were happy to restore these conquests as the price of a peace which they obtained in 1740.

On the 20th of August, 1740, was born Ivan, the son of the princess Anne, and of the prince of Brunswick. The empress adopted him, took him from the hands of his parents, and lodged him in an apartment contiguous to her own. A short time after, she fell sick, and perceiving her end approaching, appointed the infant prince her successor. The parents of Ivan appeared to be his natural and rightful guardians during his minority, but Biren rested not a moment until he had made himself regent. Partly by intrigue, partly by terror, and partly by the assistance of Munich, he obtained an address, in the name of all the states, which implored him to accept the regency, until the majority of the young prince, which was fixed at the age of seventeen years. It was necessary that this document should be signed by the empress, whose last moments were now at hand. She was surrounded and besieged by the creatures of Biren; her niece, who attentively watched her, was not suffered to speak to her: she signed the instrument in perfect ignorance of its contents.*

The court of Russia, during the first years of Anne's reign, prided itself on eclipsing all the other courts of Europe, in splendour and magnificence; but it merely paraded a luxury without taste. Here was to be seen a beau, clad in a magnificent garb, with stockings dirty and torn, and an old wig thrown in disorder over his head; there, a belle, arrayed in diamonds and the richest stuffs, disfigured, rather than adorned with the fashions of France, and drawn in a coach with lean horses, and a driver covered with rags. In the interior of their mansions, pride and dirtiness vied for the do-

* Other historians assert, that after having read and signed the act, she exclaimed, "*Biren, Biren*, thou art rushing upon thy own destruction!"

minion: at first, they sought only to display their riches; afterwards they acquired a sense of propriety and taste.

Peter I. never had less than twelve buffoons; a private person, in most instances, had one. Anne had six of these drolls, three of whom were men of high birth. One of them, a prince Galitzin, in the course of his travels, had embraced the Catholic religion; and for this offence, was condemned to make sport for his former companions and equals. The wife of this unfortunate man died; Anne compelled him to marry a female of common rank, and paid the expense of the nuptials, which were celebrated in the winter of 1740. On this eccentric occasion, a palace of ice was erected, in which the nuptial couch, formed of the same material, was placed. All the furniture, all the ornaments were of ice, as well as four cannons, and two mortars which were placed before the palace, and which, without bursting, fired several rounds.* The governors of the different provinces of the empire, were ordered to send persons of both sexes, from all the nations that were subject to Russia: these were dressed at the expense of the court, and constituted the principal ornament of the feast. The procession, composed of more than 300 persons, passed before the palace of the empress, and through the principal streets of the capital. The married pair appeared first, enclosed in a large cage, and borne on a huge elephant. Some of the guests were carried on camels; others were distributed in pairs, that were drawn by rein-deer, oxen, dogs, and goats. The dinner was prepared in the riding-school of Biren, which had been decorated for the occasion. The guests were served with the dishes of their respective countries. The feast was followed by a ball, in which every one performed the dance of his own nation. Then the new-married pair were conducted to the palace of ice, where their lodgings were prepared, and where they were compelled to remain until the following day.

Anne made many innovations and improvements in

* These cannons were fortified within by a cylinder of iron plate.

the state. Assisted by Munich, she introduced into the army a new exercise, and a stricter discipline.

She endowed a college for the military education of noble youth; and abolished all differences in the pay of soldiers, and of officers of the same rank. By this alteration, all cause of envy, on the part of the Russians, against foreigners, was in a great measure removed.

The empress was peculiarly attentive to the interests of commerce. With a view to its extension, she relinquished the Persian provinces, and executed a new treaty with Britain. She commissioned her ambassadors to search out persons of distinguished industry and skill in the trades and professions to which Russia least excelled, and send them into the empire. By this means, she procured a great number of manufacturers in woollen stuffs and silk.

Peter, a short time before his death, sent out several able persons, to sail from Kamtshatka towards the north, in order to determine whether North America was connected with Siberia or not. But the enterprize terminated without success. Anne appointed a new voyage the same design, which was the means of obtaining a with more accurate knowledge of those remote regions.

Her reign would have been more felicitous, and her memory more honoured, if she had not committed herself to the direction and government of a base minion, and left a will, which occasioned a series of revolutions in the state, and originated the misfortune and ruin of thousands of the people.

IVAN VI.

BIREN had now attained the summit of his ambition; if he was not addressed in the style of emperor, he had the prospect of being for several years, the ruler of the Russian empire. He fixed his residence in the imperial *summer-palace*, giving the parents of the emperor, the

winter palace for their dwelling, with a yearly pension of 200,000 rubles, while his own amounted to 500,000. Instead of being called, as before, "illustrious prince," he assumed the title of "his highness, regent of the Russian empire;" at the same time however, granting to duke Ulric, the title of "his highness."

The pride and cruelty of Biren increased with his elevation. He brought upon himself universal hatred, and at the same time, treated it with contempt. Every day, he multiplied inquisition and torture; every day, he added to the number of his foes. The despotism of this haughty oppressor was extended even to the father of his sovereign. On one occasion, he commanded Ulric to ask for dismission from all his employments; on another, to confine himself to his house.

No person was more active and intriguing than Munich, in procuring the regency for the duke of Courland. As a recompense for his services, he was promised to be placed at the head of affairs, and to be made generalissimo both by sea and land; but Biren, who knew Munich, had no intention to confer these important offices upon a man, who was as ambitious as himself.

Munich immediately perceived that, if he would gratify his ambition, he must effect the ruin of the regent; and this he hesitated not to attempt. He was the principal medium of communication between Biren and the parents of the Tzar. On a certain occasion, he conveyed an angry message from the regent to the princess-mother, who complained of the insults which she daily received from the guardian of her son. Munich embraced this opportunity of sympathizing in her wrongs, and promised that, if she would honour him with her confidence, he would rid her of the tyrant without delay.

His offers were accepted. In order to deceive the tyrant, he continued to court his favour, and to occupy a place at his table; he even supped with him on the night which preceded the execution of his design. While conversing at supper, Biren thus addressed him: "Mr. Marshal, in your military expeditions, have you *never* undertaken an enterprize of importance during *the night*?" He now thought his plot was discovered,

and betrayed a momentary embarassment; but recovering himself, he preserved his seat, and remained with the regent until eleven o'clock.

At two o'clock in the morning, the marshal called up his first aid-de-camp, colonel Manstein; and taking coach, hastened with him to the winter-palace, where the emperor and his parents were lodged. Having roused the princess, he summoned the officers who kept guard at the palace, to meet her in one of its apartments. On their arrival, she represented to them the indignities which the regent daily heaped upon herself, her husband, and her son; adding, that she had determined on his arrest, and flattered herself she might reckon on their support.

The officers, without hesitation, espoused the cause of the princess, and placed themselves under the command of Munich. They immediately leave the palace, and followed by their soldiers, proceed with the marshal to the summer-palace, where Biren and his family were sunk in sleep.

At two hundred paces from the palace, the troop made a halt, while Manstein communicated the orders of the princess to the officers of the regent's guard. These welcome him with joy, and even offer their aid in securing the arrest of the duke. Manstein returns with his report to the marshal, who orders him to take with him twenty men, force his way to the palace, and kill the duke if he made the least resistance.

Manstein enters, without obstacle, into the palace, and to prevent noise, commands his little band to follow him at a distance. When he had traversed the first apartments, he found himself embarassed; for he was ignorant of the chamber in which the duke lay, and was unwilling to make inquiry of the attendants, who watched in the antichamber, lest he should give an alarm. At length, he pushes against a folding door, which readily opens; he enters, and finds the duke and duchess buried in a profound sleep. He approaches the bed, opens the curtains, and demands to speak to the regent. The duke and duchess awake at the noise, and utter loud cries. The former endeavours to escape, but Manstein falls upon him, until the guards arrive.

He is then conveyed to the coach of the marshal, and driven, in company with an officer, to the winter-palace.

While the soldiers were thus occupied with the duke, the duchess sallies from the palace, naked, with dishevelled hair, dissolved in tears, and running through the streets, in pursuit of the duke. A soldier seizes her by the arm, and drags her to Manstein, who commands him to lead her back to the palace; but instead of obeying this command, he throws her down on the snow, and there leaves her to perish. The captain of the guard, happening to pass by, raises her up, provides her with garments, and has her taken back to her apartment. Such was the state of humiliation to which two persons were reduced, whose very name had been a terror both to the nation and court.

At four o'clock in the evening, the duke and duchess were conducted to Schlusselburg. The former was sentenced to death by a commission of senators, but the sentence was afterwards reversed, and he was banished to Siberia in the month of May.

Delivered from the oppression of the tyrant, the princess of Brunswick declared herself great-duchess of Russia, and regent during the minority of her son. The states took a new oath, in which the regent was named, a measure which Biren had never ventured to adopt.

Munich, as the reward of his services in the late revolution, demanded to be made generalissimo of Russia, both by sea and land; but as this office was reserved for the prince of Brunswick, his demand was steadfastly refused. He then asked for the sovereignty of the Ukraine, with the title of duke, and received a second denial. At length, however, the regent conferred on him the title of minister, the post enjoyed by Ostermann, who, therefore, did not fail to take umbrage at the appointment, and to attach himself more closely to the prince, who had been offended by Munich's application for his posts. Thus arose two parties; one headed by Anne and Munich, and the other by Ostermann and the prince.

Munich, who believed himself superior to his rivals, *bade defiance* to the father of the emperor. He pre-

pared the document, by which that prince was declared generalissimo, and dared to insert in it, "that himself, by the signal services which he had rendered to the state, was fairly entitled to that post, but that he had waived his right in favour of duke Antony Ulric, as the father of his imperial majesty, and had *been contented* to accept the place of prime minister."

After a short time, Ostermann was made minister of foreign affairs, and Golovkin, minister of the home department. Thus, there was nothing left to Munich, with the title of prime minister, but the war department. Piqued at this insult, he asked, and to his great disappointment, obtained his dismission from his post. In his retreat, emissaries every where followed him, his most minute actions were observed, and the horse-guards, at the palace, were doubled; the regent, and the prince, her husband, no longer lay on their ordinary bed, and changed their chamber every night; nor could they be persuaded of their safety, until the marshal had quitted his palace, which was situate in the vicinity of the court, and had gone to reside on the banks of the Neva.

One of the most remarkable events that happened during the regency of Anne, was the arrival at Moscow of an embassy from Thamas Kouli Khan. After having usurped the throne of the Sophis, and conquered the empire of the Mongols, this prince, who had heard much concerning the beauty of the princess Elizabeth, sent to ask her in marriage, at the same time promising to introduce the Greek religion into Persia. His ambassador was attended by 16,000 men, and twenty pieces of cannon But this formidable troop was invited to stop at Kitzliar, on the borders of the Tereb, and the ambassador made his entry into Moscow, with a train of only 3,000 persons on horseback. He presented to the regent, on the part of the Shah, fourteen elephants, and a great quantity of jewels, among which were very large diamonds. The presents were accepted, but the proposals of marriage were rejected.

Munich, during his administration, was induced by the Prussian monarch, to endeavour to dissolve the connexion between Russia and Austria; but the regent, *following the advice* of Ostermann, adhered to Austria,

The following morning, Lestoc, according to his custom, repaired to the palace of his mistress, who was busy at her toilette. Finding a card on the table, he drew on it a wheel and a crown; and when the princess entered, presented her with the design: "No medium, Madam," said he, "the one for you, and the other for me." This bold observation removed all the hesitations of Elizabeth, and the die was cast.

Prince Ulric was informed that the hour of danger was at hand. He communicated his knowledge to the regent, and proposed to her that guards should be placed in the streets; but she rejected the proposal, still confiding in the protestation and tears of a perfidious wretch.

At midnight, Elizabeth, accompanied by Lestoc and Voronstof, proceeded to the quarters of the Preobrajenski guards. Holding a cross in her hand, she made a speech to the soldiers, in which she justified her enterprize, reminded them of her relation to the immortal Peter, and called upon them to assist her in her attempt to ascend the imperial throne.

Some of the guards had already been gained by bribes, and others by threats; the affable demeanour of Elizabeth, aided by the distribution of liquors, brought over most of the remainder, and the refractory were manacled. The conspirators at this time consisted of several hundred armed men. Joined by all they meet in their progress, they march to the palace inhabited by the emperor and his parents. The sentinels are surprised and overpowered. Thirty soldiers force their way to the apartment of the grand-duchess and her spouse. They command her, in the name of Elizabeth, to arise and follow them. She asks to speak with Elizabeth, but is sternly refused, and is scarcely allowed time to cover herself with a gown. In the mean time, the prince, who had recourse to weapons, was seized by two grenadiers, hastily wrapped in the clothing of his bed, and dragged to the gate of the palace. There, a sledge, into which some garments had been thrown, receives the unfortunate pair, and conveys them to the palace of Elizabeth, where, as prisoners, they are placed under a strong guard.

The infant Ivan, equally unconscious of his elevation, and of his fall, was gently sleeping at his nurse's side, when the soldiers entered his apartment in the palace. As they were ordered not to disturb the repose of innocence, several of them collected around his cradle, and watched his slumbers in silence. At the expiration of an hour, the babe opened his eyes on his fierce attendants. Disputing which of them should carry him to the empress, he was frightened; and to still his cries, they allowed his nurse to wrap him in a cloak, and accompany him, in a sledge, to the palace. Elizabeth kissed the boy;—as she held him in her arms, some soldiers passed by, shouting, "Long live Elizabeth!"—pleased with the noise, he extended his little hands, and endeavoured to imitate the shouts. "Poor innocent!" exclaimed the empress, "you know not that they exult in your ruin."

At the same time, a detachment of soldiers arrested the marshal Munich and his son; counts Ostermann, Golovkin, Loevenvold, the baron Mengden, and many other persons of inferior rank.

The senate, and all the nobles of the empire were summoned into the presence of Elizabeth; the troops, at dawn of day, were assembled before the palace: the accession of the new empress was announced, and she received the oaths of allegiance; but these events produced no joy in the capital. The people in general, had cherished no desire for a revolution: they felt happy under the gentle sway of the regent, but knew not what might befal them under a new government. Each one trembled for himself, or for some member of his family, and consternation was depicted on every face. The first man who had dared to place himself at the head of some troops, would have re-established the grand-duchess, in the government of the state.

ELIZABETH.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1741.—DIED 1762.

ELIZABETH, on the day of her accession, published a manifesto, in which she declared that she had expelled the usurpers, and taken possession of the throne of her ancestors. She soon after published a second, in which she endeavoured to prove her right to the crown, and informed the nation, that of her own imperial grace, she had ordered the princess Anne, with her son and daughter, to set out for their native country.

These orders, however, if given, were never executed; neither Anne, nor her husband, nor her son Ivan, ever saw Germany again, but were subjected to a series of injuries and persecutions, that it may be proper here to relate.

On the 12th of December, they were conducted from Petersburg to Riga, where they arrived the 6th of January, 1742, and were immured in prison. Application was made to Elizabeth on behalf of the unfortunate family, by the courts of Vienna, London, and Berlin; but as she would only consent to the release of the duke, he refused to accept of liberty. From Riga the royal captives were conducted to Dunamund, and thence to Oranienburg, in the province of Voronetz, where they remained two years, under the care of Baron Korf, who treated them with great humanity. From Oranienburg they were transferred to Kolmogory, situate at the mouth of the White Sea, and about fifty miles from Archangel. Here Anne died in child-bed, in 1746, a prey to grief and melancholy; principally owing to the privation of her beloved Ivan, who had been taken from his parents, and shut up in a monastery, at Oranienburg. Her husband survived till 1780, when he finished his calamitous career in prison.

The dethroned and miserable Ivan was brought up in such seclusion in the monastery, that his mental faculties were deprived of all expansion and vigour. He was not allowed either to write or to read. A monk of the convent, thought to advance his fortune

by carrying off the prince; but the attempt was followed by ruin to himself, and additional misery to the situation of Ivan. Being overtaken at Smolensk, they were brought back, and the unhappy youth was confined in a convent, upon an isle in the lake of Valdai. When about sixteen years of age, he was transported to the fortress of Schlusselburg, and in the same year, 1756, was secretly brought to Petersburg, where Elizabeth had an interview with him. In conversation with him, she shed many tears; but pity was sacrificed to ambition, and she remanded him to his dungeon.

Ivan remained in the fortress of Schlusselburg, for eight years, in a bare and dismal apartment, passing his time in total inaction, by the faint glimmer of a lamp, which only served to shew him the horrors of the place. He could scarcely ever obtain permission to breathe the fresh air, or feel the cheering beams of the sun. All discourse with him was utterly forbidden; his speech, through disuse, became inarticulate, and his mind sunk into a state of absence, confusion, and gloom. He was accustomed perpetually to change his dress, and admire himself like a little child. It is asserted, however, that he was not ignorant of his descent, and that he ventured to indulge a hope of re-ascending the throne.

Peter III. soon after his accession, went to Schlusselburg, in order to have an interview with the unfortunate prince. Keeping his intention secret, he was accompanied by baron Korf, and some others, and with an order previously signed by himself, gained admission into the apartment of Ivan. The injured captive appeared very clean and neat, though his clothes were coarse. Peter had not been long in the room, before the reflections that crowded upon his mind, obliged him to return into the air. "I now feel myself," said he to one of his attendants, "very much refreshed. I was so exceedingly shocked, as to be very near fainting." Ivan talked very incoherently, one moment pretending to be the emperor Ivan, and the next a body, into which the soul of that emperor, now dead, had migrated. When asked why he thought himself an emperor, he said, he had learnt it from his parents and guards.

Being questioned whether he remembered his parents, he replied in the affirmative, and bitterly lamented that Elizabeth had kept both them and himself in such a wretched condition. He recollected, he added, that they were all under the care of an officer, the only person who had ever shewn them any tenderness. Korf immediately inquired, whether he should know that officer. "I should not at present," returned Ivan, "it is so long ago, and I was then a child; but I have not forgotten his name, it is Korf." The general being very much affected, Peter, who was likewise moved, said, in a broken voice: "Baron, you see, a good deed is never lost."

Peter conversed nearly an hour with the dethroned prince. As he proposed to give him liberty, he left a confidential servant in the apartment, to ascertain whether the idiocy of Ivan was real or feigned. It soon appearing that he was actually disordered in his mind, all idea of releasing him was abandoned. He was now transported to Kexholm, another fortress in the Ladoga lake. In passing from Schlusselburg to a galliot, stationed at some distance for his reception, the wind being boisterous, the boat was upset, and he narrowly escaped with his life. On the accession of Catherine II.* he was removed from Kexholm, and the carriage breaking down, he was led, covered with a cloak, through Schlusselburg, to his former prison, where he was confined till his death, an event which was attended with the following remarkable circumstances:—

A lieutenant, named Mirovitch, thinking himself neglected as an officer, determined to revenge himself on the empress, by delivering Ivan from his dungeon, and placing him on the throne. In this daring enterprise, he was joined by Ushakof, lieutenant in another regiment These conspirators took an oath of fidelity to each other, on the altar of the Virgin Mary's church, and having invoked the Almighty to aid their attempt, drew up a manifesto, which they intended to distribute as soon as Ivan was liberated. Summer was chosen to achieve this enterprize, when it was expected the

* Catherine likewise once conversed with him in prison.

empress would be in Livonia. Though in this interval, his associate was drowned, Mirovitch persevered. He endeavoured to infuse seditious principles unto Tikon Casatkin, a servant of the court, and communicated his design to Tchevaridsef, a lieutenant in the artillery. During the week in which he was on duty in the fortress, he was only able to mark the door of Ivan's apartment, which he showed to Tchevaridsef, who came from Petersburg to visit him. When his time expired, he contrived to be continued on guard another week. On the evening of the 4th of July, he had only gained one common soldier, Jacob Piskof. About ten, he first hinted his intentions to three corporals, and two soldiers; and though they were at first faithful to the empress, they were at length persuaded to favour his attempt. But timid and irresolute, they proposed to wait for a more favourable opportunity, to which Mirovitch seemed to assent.

Between one and two in the morning, however, he renewed his solicitations, and by bribes and promises, secured their concurrence. With these six assistants, he collected about forty of the soldiers, and pretending an order from the empress, commanded them to load their pieces, and march to Ivan's prison. In his way, meeting the governor, who had been roused by the noise, Mirovitch knocked him down, and having entrusted him to some of the party, advanced to the gate of the prince's dungeon. Being refused admittance, he ordered his followers to fire. As the centinels returned the fire, Mirovitch's soldiers retreated, and it was only by reading an order from the empress, which he had forged, and adding threats, promises, and entreaties, that he prevailed with them again to advance. A piece of artillery was pointed against the prison door, when it was suddenly opened for their admission.

The officers Vlasief and Tchekin, who had secret orders to put their prisoner to death, in case of an attempt to rescue him, seeing the soldiers return with the gun, considered further resistance as vain, and drew their swords upon the unhappy Ivan. The prince, full six feet high, well formed, and of athletic strength, though almost naked and unarmed, defended himself

with all the courage of despair. His hand was pierced, yet he broke one of their swords, and resisted until stabbed in several parts, and wounded in the back, he was thrown down. The officers now opened the door, and pointing to the body of the murdered prince, exclaimed: "Here is your emperor!" Mirovitch, on seeing the dismal spectacle, was at first confounded; but soon collected his courage, and finding his hopes blasted, surrendered himself with perfect composure.

When the body of Ivan was exposed on the following day, great crowds collected from different quarters, and, by various attitudes and expressions of grief, bewailed a prince, who in unconscious infancy had sat on the throne of Russia; had drawn out a wretched existence in successive dungeons, and perished by the hand of violence, a sacrifice to the state. As a tumult was apprehended, from the uncommon concourse, his body was wrapped in a sheep-skin, and buried, without ceremony, in the old chapel of the fortress.

Mirovitch and his accomplices, after being examined at Schlusselburg, were again examined at Petersburg, by a select committee. It appeared from all the inquiries, that Mirovitch had been his own adviser and instigator. He solemnly professed that he had no associates, except his fellow-prisoners. He was sentenced to lose his head, a punishment which he suffered with great tranquillity. His followers received different punishments, according to the reputed degrees of their guilt.

It was even reported, that Mirovitch was encouraged by the court in the attempt that occasioned Ivan's death. But there seems little ground for this accusation, except the advantage which Catherine reaped from the removal of a prisoner, whose life might afford a feeble hope to discontented spirits, and allure them to some desperate enterprise.

We shall now resume the thread of our history.

Whatever severity the empress Elizabeth displayed against the deposed regent and her family, and though she had banished the chiefs of the late administration, *Ostermann* and Munich, to Siberia; yet, on the other hand, she recalled many thousands who had been con-

demned to exile in those dreary regions, under the late regency; among whom were even two Dolgorukies, whom she reinstated in their posts. What Munich and Ostermann had been under the preceding governments, Bestuchef now became. As the friend of Biren, he had been exiled with him, but on Munich's disgrace, was liberated and recalled by the regent Anne. Elizabeth now appointed him vice-chancellor, and soon after promoted him to the high office of grand-chancellor; in which station, he directed the affairs of the Russian government, almost entirely at his own will.

The empress, to shew her gratitude to the Preobrajenski guards, for their services in raising her to the throne, honoured the troop of grenadiers with the rank of nobility, and appointed herself their colonel. Intoxicated with these marks of favour, they rioted in all kinds of excess, and came to the brutal resolution of murdering all foreigners who might fall in their way. Elizabeth was obliged to exert her authority, to repress the arrogance of her favourites; but, their hatred to foreigners, though punished when discovered, was of essential injury to the service.

The Swedes, who had, during the regency of Anne, entered into a war, to recover their ancient possessions, perceiving that Elizabeth was not inclined to relinquish them, continued hostilities: but they were not successful. Their troops were surrounded at Helsingfor, and obliged to capitulate, on condition of being allowed to return with their arms to Sweden. Disappointed in their expectation, they agreed to a peace, on the basis of that of Nieustadt, surrendered Frederickstadt and Wilmanstrand to Elizabeth, and, at her request, nominated Frederick Adolphus as successor to the throne.

During the war with Sweden, a conspiracy was formed against Elizabeth, in the very centre of her court. It was directed by the marquis de Botta, envoy of the queen of Hungary, at Berlin, and formerly minister of that princess in Russia. The principal conspirators were Lapukhin, commissary-general of marine, and his wife; madam Bestuchef, sister-in-law to the grand-chancellor; the chamberlain Lilienfeldt, *and other persons*, of inferior consideration. The mar-

quis encouraged them by his correspondence, in which he promised them the aid of his royal mistress, and of the king of Prussia, who, he assured them, cherished an ardent desire to end the captivity of the duke of Brunswick, and to restore Ivan, whom he regarded as his nephew, to the Russian throne.

The conspirators were distinguished equally by imprudence and irresolution. Lapukhin, a brother of the general of that name, being at table with some officers, proposed the health of the young emperor for a toast, and indulged, at the same time, in the most broad and unguarded invectives against Elizabeth. This indiscretion was immediately reported to the empress; spies were appointed; the secrets of the conspiracy were detected, and its authors punished.

This conspiracy threatened to embroil the courts of Vienna and Russia; but the queen of Hungary disavowed all knowledge of the plot; and the marquis of Botta was recalled.

Elizabeth had appointed the duke of Holstein her successor, and had selected for his consort Sophia Augustus, daughter of Christian Augustus, reigning prince of Anhalt-Zerbst. The young princess was conducted to Moscow by her mother, who was born princess of Holstein-Gottorf. Sophia embraced the Greek religion; the empress gave her the name of Catherine, and the marriage was celebrated with great pomp on the 1st of September, 1744. The fruit of this union was Paul Petrovitch, afterwards the emperor Paul.

Elizabeth formed a treaty of alliance with the Prussian monarch, in 1743, but it was of short duration. When, in 1745, Frederic requested her to guarantee its performance, she rejected his application, and in the following year entered into a treaty with Austria, to which the electorate king of Poland was invited to accede. Rumours were now in circulation, that a rupture was approaching between Prussia and Austria. These, however, were publicly contradicted by both courts, who declared that no misunderstanding had arisen between them. It was certain, nevertheless, that Russia, the ally of Austria, was making prepara-

tions for war, and that both courts were straining their efforts to draw the king of Poland, and the elector of Saxony, into a confederacy, which from a defensive might be soon converted into an offensive alliance.

Lestoc, to whom Elizabeth was indebted for her elevation, and whom she had placed at the head of the medical department, with a salary of 7,000 rubles, entertained a strong predilection for the Prussian monarch, and in consequence of this, he was obnoxious to Bestuchef. His services were now forgotten, and he was at length involved in the catastrophe by which so many favourites in Russia had finished their career —a banishment to Siberia. No sooner was he disgraced, than all possible means were employed to excite new dissensions between Elizabeth and Frederic.

A passage in the writings of the king of Prussia, in which he makes the mother of the empress to have been the wife of a petty officer, together with a free remark on her own irregularities, which escaped him at table, and was reported to her with aggravations, made Elizabeth the personal enemy of Frederic; and while provoked by the satire of that prince, it was not difficult to persuade her that he was concerting measures against her government. Notwithstanding, therefore, the numerous endeavours of the Prussian party at St. Petersburg, to preserve the bond of amity between the two monarchs, the empress, in the year 1750, recalled her ambassador from the court of Berlin; and Frederic followed her example with his minister at the Russian court. In 1753, it was agreed between Russia and Austria, to resist all further increase of the Prussian power; and, in 1755, proceeding a step further, they resolved to place themselves in a condition to attack Prussia, or, in case of an attack from that power, to resist with energy and success.

When the English and Prussian monarchs had concluded a treaty, by which they guaranteed each other's dominions, Elizabeth joined the alliance formed by France and Austria, for the purpose of checking the power of those monarchs In conformity with this engagement, general Fermor, aided by the Russian fleet, undertook the reduction of Memel; while an army of

80,000 men, under marshal Apraxin, invaded Prussia. From the moment of their entering the Prusssian territory, the soldiers of this army committed such barbarities as had not been heard of in the military history of Europe, for upwards of a thousand years The inhabitants every where deserted the land before them, and a total want of the means of subsistence ensued.

An army of 24,000 men, under the command of field-marshal Lehvald, was all the force that Frederic had been able to leave behind him, for the defence of his dominions; and yet the marshal had the boldness to quit his camp at Vehlau, and give battle to the Russians on the 30th of August, at a place called Norkitten, not far from Grosyægersdof. Revenge for the atrocities every where perpetrated by the Russians, inspired the Prussian soldiers with fierce and dauntless courage; they rushed like angry lions on the savage hordes of the north, and fortune seemed at first to declare in their favour. But toward the close of the battle, the Russians gained the advantage, and remained masters of the field. Lehvald, however, was allowed to retire in excellent order, without being pursued, having killed five times more of the enemy than he had lost of his own men; while Apraxin, strange to relate, was soon after induced to abandon Prussia, leaving behind him a single garrison in the frontier-fort of Memel.

This extraordinary retreat of an army, so lately victorious, was an event so totally unexpected, that it astonished all Europe, and drew complaints not only from Austria, but from all the other courts that were in alliance against Prussia. The motives which induced it have been thus explained :—

Count Bestuchef, grand-chancellor of Russia, who for several years had been the favourite minister of Elizabeth, was entirely devoted to the interests of Austria. The grand duke, afterwards Peter III., on the other hand, always espoused the part of Frederic. Elizabeth, just at this time, lay so dangerously ill, that her physicians began to doubt of her recovery. Bestuchef, upon this, conceived a plan, in case Elizabeth should die, to exclude the grand-duke from the succession, and to place upon the throne his son, Paul

Petrovitch, under the guardianship of his mother, afterwards Catherine II. To this end, however, it was necessary that he should have the troops at hand, in order to employ them as circumstances might require; and as he knew that Apraxin was devoted to his service, he had commanded that general to commence a retreat, even from the field of glory and conquest. But the empress, on her recovery, having learnt the cause of Apraxin's retreat, banished the chancellor, and sent the marshal prisoner to Narva, where he expired, on being informed of Bestuchef's disgrace.

The empress still persevered in her designs against Prussia. A new army of 90,000 men, under marshal Brown and general Fermor, reduced Konigsberg and ducal Prussia; but, elated with success, when they had penetrated as far as Custrin, they were repulsed by Frederic; and Fermor, who attempted to reduce Colberg, was obliged to winter beyond the Vistula.

The following year, 1759, the arms of Elizabeth were crowned with greater success. Soltikof, who now took the command of the army, having established magazines on the frontiers of Poland, advanced to the banks of the Oder, with a view of forming a junction with the Austrians, and invading Silesia or Brandenburg. He defeated the Prussian general, Wedel, who endeavoured to obstruct his march, near Zullicau, took Frankfort, on the Oder, and entrenched himself in a strong position near Konersdorff.

Frederic now marched with 10,000 of his best troops, to join the broken army of Wedel, in order, if possible, to drive the formidable invaders from his country. Prince Henry commanded the remainder of his army, which was too well posted to fear an attack during his absence. The eyes of all were fixed upon his march, and his soldiers, who remembered Zorndorf, eagerly desired to renew the combat with the same antagonists.

Marshal Daun, the Austrian general, was not unapprised of the movements of the Russians, or of the designs of the king of Prussia. He selected about 12,000 of his horse, which, with about 8,000 foot, he placed under the command of general Laudohn, one of the ablest officers in his service. This body was di-

vided into two columns, one of which marched through Silesia, and the other through Lusatia. With little loss or opposition, they both joined the Russian army, and were received with transports of joy.

In the mean time, the king of Prussia joined general Wedel at Muhlrose, and took upon him the command of the united armies, which, with all the reinforcements he could obtain, did not amount to 50,000 men; while the army of the Russians, since the junction of Laudohn, was 90,000 complete. These had besides taken and fortified a post, which it was extremely difficult to force; yet, under these accumulated disadvantages, it was necessary that Frederic should fight. The detachments from Daun's army, already menaced Berlin; Saxony had become a prey to the Imperialists; and the Russians, united with the Austrians, encamped before his eyes in Silesia, the best and richest part of his dominions. In short, his former reputation, his present difficulties, his future hopes, every motive of honour, and every desire of safety, demanded an engagement.

When the attack was determined, the king's troops put themeslves in motion, on the 12th of August, at two in the morning; and, having formed themselves in a wood, advanced towards the enemy; but it was near eleven before the action commenced. Frederic began, according to his usual method, with a fierce cannonade, which was directed against the left wing of the Russian army, and poured destruction into its ranks. He then attacked that wing with several battalions disposed in columns.

The Russian entrenchments were forced with great slaughter. Seventy-two pieces of cannon were taken; but still there was a defile to be passed, and several redoubts to be mastered, which covered the village of Konersdorf. These were attacked with the same courage, and taken one after another. The enemy again made a stand at the village, but were driven from post to post, until they were obliged to take refuge in their last redoubts. For upwards of six hours, victory declared for the Prussians, who every where broke the enemy with unparalleled carnage. They had driven

them from almost all the ground which they had occupied before the battle, and had taken more than half their artillery; scarcely any thing seemed wanting to decide the event of the day in their favour.

The king, in these circumstances of triumph, wrote a billet to the queen, to this effect: "Madam, we have beat the Russians from their entrenchments. In two hours, expect to hear of a glorious victory." This news arrived at Berlin just as the post was going out, and the friends of Frederic throughout Europe, exulted in the immediate prospect of a certain and conclusive victory. Meantime, Providence was preparing for him a terrible reverse.

Count Soltikof collected the scattered remains of his army, and made a stand at a redoubt which had been erected on a very advantageous eminence. Nothing more was wanting to terminate the contest in favour of Frederic, than to drive the Russians from this their forlorn hope. But the enterprise was difficult; and it is asserted that the Prussian generals had no wish to push any farther the distinguished advantages they had obtained. Their monarch, however, could not endure to be a conqueror by halves, and he once more put all to the hazard. His infantry, still resolute, and animated by their recent success, were readily induced to renew the contest. They drew on their bodies, fainting with heat and labour, to the attack; but the enterprise exceeded their strength. The situation of the enemy was impregnable; and they were repulsed with great slaughter. Frederic led them to a second attack, and they were a second time repulsed, with a loss greater than the first. These efforts being unsuccessful, the onset was confided to the cavalry, who made redoubled, but useless attacks: the horses and their riders were alike exhausted.

At this moment, the Austrian cavalry, which had been hitherto inactive, rushed down upon them, broke them to pieces, forced them back upon their foot, and threw the whole into irreparable disorder. The army was seized with a general panic, and in a few minutes, the troops, so lately victorious and irresistible, were totally dispersed and defeated. The king made every

exertion to restore the field, hazarding his person, even beyond his former daring and prodigal of a life, which he seemed to think ought not to be divided from conquest. Thrice he led on his troops to the charge; two horses were killed under him; and several balls were lodged in his clothes. The utmost efforts of skill, courage, and despair, were made, and proved ineffectual: a single error outweighed them all.

The night, and the prudent use of some eminences, preserved the Prussian army from total destruction. All their cannon was taken. Their killed and wounded, by the most favourable accounts, were near 20,000. General Putkamner was killed on the spot. Other distinguished generals were among the wounded; as were the prince of Wirtenberg, and five major-generals. The enemy could not have had fewer than 10,000 killed on their side; for seldom has there been fought a more bloody battle.

When the king of Prussia found himself obliged to quit the field, he sent another dispatch to the queen, expressed in this manner: "Remove from Berlin with the royal family. Let the archives be carried to Potsdam. The town may make conditions with the enemy." It would be in vain to attempt to depict the state of the court and city, on the receipt of this news, in the midst of their congratulations on the accounts they had received but a few hours before. Their terror was increased by a report that there was no account of their king, and that a Russian army was advancing to take possession of the city.

The Russian general, instead of following up the decisive victory which he had gained over the Prussians, retired into Poland. As the great duke Peter was well known to favour the Prussian interests, it is probable that Soltikof, by this step, intended to pay court to that prince, whom he soon expected to be his sovereign. When, however, he was pressed by marshal Daun, to pursue his operations with vigour, he replied; "I have done enough this year, Sir; I have gained two battles, which have cost Russia 27,000 men. I *expect*, as an incentive to renew my operations, that *you will*, in your turn, gain two victories."

The following year, general Tottleben entered Berlin, made the garrison prisoners of war, and laid the city under severe contributions. The Russians undertook, but were obliged to raise the siege of Colberg.

In 1761, Butterlin succeeded Soltikof in the command of the army, and acted in concert with the Austrians, while Romanzof penetrating into Pomerania, reduced Colberg.

When the news of this conquest was brought to Petersburg, Elizabeth was at the point of death. She expired on the 29th of December, 1761, after a reign of twenty years, and is supposed to have shortened her days by sensual excess.

Elizabeth, as empress, governed but little herself, it being properly her ministers who dictated her regulations and decrees. At the beginning of her reign, indeed, she was sometimes present at the sittings of the senate; but she soon contented herself with affixing her signature to the resolutions of that assembly, and to the decisions of her ministers, or of the conference which supplied the place of the council.

Her character was supposed to be mild. Whenever she received the news even of victories gained by her own army, she shed tears on account of the effusion of human blood, by which they must have been purchased. But this sensibility did not prevent her from engaging in a war with Prussia from a spirit of revenge, nor even on her death-bed from exhorting her courtiers to its vigorous prosecution. On her accession to the throne, she made a vow, that no criminal should be put to death during her reign. But if capital punishments were not inflicted, the prisons were filled with sufferers, who perished unknown and unregretted. She instituted a political inquisition, to examine persons suspected of treason, which was kept in full operation during the whole of her reign. Upon the slightest surmises, many persons were tortured, and many expired under the punishment of the knoot. The commandant at Rogervyk, had usually 10,000 prisoners under his care, all of them shockingly mutilated, either by having their tongues torn out, or the sides of their nostrils cut away by red

hot-pincers, or their ears cut off, or their arms twisted behind them, by dislocation at the shoulders, &c.

Elizabeth lived in a state of constant alarm. Besides the guards that were placed about her apartment, a person, originally a tailor, usually remained at the foot of her bed, while she slept, a post which he occupied two and twenty years.

This empress was equally addicted to superstition and sensuality. She would continue whole hours upon her knees before the picture of a saint, and yet frequently drink to excess. She was engaged in a series of the most licentious amours, and at the same time enforced the observance of religious fasts, with all the strictness of a papal saint.

During the reign of Elizabeth, the army was increased, though not improved, and literature and commerce made some progress. The sum appointed for the support of the academy of sciences founded by Peter I., was augmented; and she established, in 1758, an academy of painting and sculpture. At Moscow she endowed a university and two gymnasiums.—Architecture, likewise, found a great admirer and patroness in her, Petersburg being indebted to her for various embellishments, and numerous structures.

PETER III.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1762.—DETHRONED 1763.

ELIZABETH was succeeded by her nephew, Peter III. son of the princess Anne, eldest daughter of Peter the Great. In 1725, this princess espoused Charles Frederic, duke of Holstein, and heir of the Swedish throne. The expectant of two crowns, she was disappointed of both. Catherine I. had nominated her one of the council of regency, during the minority of Peter II., but she was excluded by the violence of Mentchikof, and driven from Russia by his orders. She retired with her consort to Kiel, where she died in 1728, in the 22nd year of her age, leaving an only son, Peter III., heir of her rights and misfortunes.

Peter lost his father the following year, and as there was no prospect of his accession to the throne of Russia, he was educated as a German prince, by his uncle, the bishop of Lubec.* In 1741, Elizabeth, the maternal aunt of the young prince, sent for him to Petersburg; and, as we have already related, proclaimed him her successor to the throne of Russia, and married him to Catherine, daughter to the prince of Anhalt-Zerbst. The same year, likewise, the Swedes had elected him their king; an honour which he declined to accept; and remained in Russia. Thus, therefore, the son presumed to reject a crown for which his father had sighed in vain, and instead of it, obtained the reversion of a still mightier realm, which the father had supposed to be lost to him for ever.

The grand-duke and his consort lived for some time in apparent harmony. But a want of congeniality in their habits and dispositions, gradually produced mutual distrust, indifference, and opposition, which events ripening into irreconcilable aversion, brought a series of calamities upon the grand-duke, and occasioned at once, the crimes and the honours of Catherine.

Though Peter was not naturally deficient in understanding, he had received little or no benefit from instruction; his person was uncouth, and his manners rude and vulgar; while Catherine, naturally intelligent, and carefully educated, added to great personal beauty, refinement of taste, and dignity of behaviour. She was ashamed of her consort, and in her presence, he was ashamed of himself. As the grand-duke's pretensions to the throne were superior to Elizabeth's, she grew jealous of him. Instead of giving him an opportunity for studying the business of state in so extensive a monarchy as that of Russia, she kept him at a distance from whatever related to the affairs of government. Distrust and jealousy, which Bestuchef and others endeavoured to excite and foment, very soon begat a coolness between the aunt and the nephew; and Elizabeth more and more narrowed the sphere of Peter's activity, instead of directing it to objects worthy of a future sovereign. She even suffered him,

* Afterwards king of Sweden.

frequently, to be in great want of money. No employment, therefore, except the military, was left for Peter. He was diligent in exercising the guards; but occupied himself principally with a small body of Holstein troops, that were stationed at Oranienbaum, and whom he dressed and exercised in the Prussian mode. To military exercises, were added musical and theatrical performances. The spies of Bestuchef persuaded the duke that every Prussian officer was a smoker, drinker, and gambler, and he acquired those vices without delay.

The want of mutual confidence between Elizabeth and Peter, was most conspicuous in the first year of the war of 1756. Peter, who had been personally acquainted with the king of Prussia, was enthusiastically attached to that monarch: he could imagine nothing more valuable than his friendship; he commonly styled him, the king his master, and boasted that he was a soldier of so distinguished a hero and general. These sentiments, so entirely opposite to those of Elizabeth, produced the most discordant and baneful effects. If public thanksgivings were offered for a victory over the Prussians, Peter never appeared at the solemnity; but endeavoured, by publishing correct accounts of the losses sustained by the Russians, to damp the joy of the occasion: on the other hand, when the king of Prussia defeated the Russians, he celebrated the day in festivity, with his companions at Oranienbaum.

With such dispositions, it was not to be expected that Peter, on his accession, would prolong the war with Prussia. He immediately settled an armistice with Frederic: he next addressed himself to the allies of his empire, in order to effect a general peace with Prussia; and on their refusal to hearken to his proposals, he soon after concluded a separate peace between the courts of St. Petersburg and Berlin, by the terms of which Frederic had restitution made to him of all that the Russian troops had captured in his dominions. Peter proceeded even to declare himself the friend and ally of the king of Prussia, and at the same time sent orders to his troops to join the Prussians, and to act under the orders of the king. Thus the two powers, from the most inveterate enemies, were converted into friends and allies.

With the exception of this peace, the conditions of which were justly obnoxious to the Russians, Peter began his reign with such acts as astonished those who had formed their ideas of his character, from his conduct during the life of Elizabeth. So far from revenging the injuries which he had suffered, he forgave his enemies; shewed kindness to the friends of the late empress, and retained in their employments almost all the great officers of state. Persons who had been sent into exile by Elizabeth, were recalled, to the number of 17,000; and among them appeared Biren, Munich, and Lestoc. Munich, who was now eighty-two years of age, and who had borne twenty years of exile with exemplary resignation and fortitude, increasing the pittance allowed him for his support, by keeping cows, and teaching geometry, presented himself with his family, in his sheep-skin pelisse, before the emperor. The prince, putting round his neck the order of St. Andrew, and restoring him to his rank, said, "I hope that your advanced age may still permit you to serve me." "Since your majesty," replied the count, "has raised me from darkness to light, you will ever find me ready to expose my life in your service Neither a tedious exile, nor the severity of a Siberian climate, has in the least damped the ardour that I have formerly shewn for the interests of Russia, and the glory of its sovereign."

Peter suppressed the secret council, or state inquisition, which had been invented by Alexey, for the examination of persons suspected of treason, and had occasioned innumerable oppressions. He freed the nobility from the obligation of bearing arms when summoned, granted them permission to travel into foreign countries, and to enter into foreign service at their discretion. He softened the rigour of military discipline, abolished the disgraceful punishment of officers, and formed a tribunal of general police. To alleviate the burdens of the people, he reduced the price of salt; for the encouragement of commerce, he lessened the duties in the Livonian ports. By the institution of a loan bank, he abated the pressure of usury; while he made every exertion to correct abuses in the administration of justice, and to introduce a more equitable

system of jurisprudence. He diligently visited the several official departments of government, and received petitions with his own hand. Conduct so unexpected, excited universal admiration and delight, and such was the gratitude of the nobility, that they proposed to raise him a statue of gold.

These auspicious beginnings excited hopes of a benign and prosperous reign that were soon blasted. Peter, in a short time, resigned himself to his former habits. His measures of foreign and domestic administration, as well as his private life, discovered such imprudence, weakness, and absurdity, as exposed him to contempt abroad, offended all classes of his subjects, and presented to his enemies the temptation and opportunity of effecting his destruction.

The emperor having taken offence at the king of Denmark, proposed to march an army into Holstein, and recover the possession of Sleswick. The king of Prussia, who foresaw the consequences of this wild enterprise, endeavoured to divert him from it, but Peter, obstinate in proportion to his inexperience, while he thanked his friend for his attention, persisted in his undertaking. Thus making peace and war, in obedience to his partialities and resentment, without any regard to the interests of the empire, he gave offence to all those who took any concern in the national prosperity.

Peter was a German, and made no secret of his predilection for his countrymen. He shewed a preference to German troops, dress, and exercise; disbanded the guards which placed Elizabeth on the throne, that his Holstein soldiers might perform the duty of life-guards in their stead; and ordered part of the regiments of Ismailof, usually stationed at Petersburg and Preobrajenski, to take the field against the Danes. Was it then a matter of surprise, that the guards were not favourable to Peter III., and that they did not defend him at the revolution that followed? —The clergy also were offended at Peter, professing to discern, from the whole of his behaviour, that he was not a true Greek christian. He appropriated the estates of the monasteries to the service of the crown, allowing the monks annual pensions, inferior to their former in-

come, and removed the pictures of the saints from many of the churches. He banished the archbishop of Novgorod, who opposed these measures, but this exciting a clamour among the people, he restored the prelate, thus betraying his weakness, without appeasing his foes. And last, but not least, he insulted the saints, by calling two newly-consructed vessels, not after any of their names, but one after his uncle, the Prince George, and the other the Frederic, after his Prussian majesty.

While Peter was thus incurring the displeasure of the nobility, clergy, soldiers, and in short, of the whole nation, his aversion to Catherine was matured into an open rupture.

As his mistress, the countess Vorontzof had acquired an entire ascendancy over his affections, he no longer behaved to his wife with the least propriety. He neglected her, and on one occasion so insulted her, that she burst into tears and retired from table. By flattering, scolding, and beating, the countess induced him to promise to marry her, and place her on the throne in the room of Catherine. He resolved to repudiate the empress, to declare her son Paul illegitimate, and to confine her in the fortress of Schlusselburg. These resolutions, which to have been successful, should have been executed as soon as they were formed, were quickly revealed to the empress by the indiscretion, no less of Peter, than of his mistress; and that princess delayed not to anticipate the designs of her consort.

Catherine had pursued a line of policy very different from that of the Tzar. A pattern of dissimulation, she had, before the death of Elizabeth, assumed a great appearance of devotion, which she retained on coming to the throne, being punctual in the most superstitious practices, and paying great reverence to the principal clergy of the empire. While the emperor associated with debauchees and buffoons, she appeared with a dignified affability, and endeavoured to attach to herself those whose talents, intrigues, or ambition, might render them subservient to her designs. By her deportment on public occasions, it appeared that she was qualified to support the majesty of a sovereign; and the neglect and insult which she received from her con-

sort, awakened a sympathy, which the prospect of her danger improved into zealous activity for her defence. A conspiracy was now formed to dethrone the emperor, the particulars of which it is necessary to relate.

At the head of those who united in this conspiracy against Peter, were the brothers, counts Orlof, count Razumovski, the hetman of the Kozacks, count Panin, chief tutor of the heir apparent, and the princess Dashkof, the empress herself being privy to the plot. It was as little concealed from Peter, as formerly Elizabeth's enterprise had been from Anne; and Peter shewed the same indifference to its progress as Anne had displayed. In explanation of his conduct, however, it should be considered, that he was surrounded by traitors, who pretended to be his friends, while they maintained a correspondence with the opposite party, and dissuaded him from employing the precautions which common prudence would have dictated.

The 9th of July, 1762, was the day on which the conspirators suddenly and successfully put their design in execution. Peter was at his favourite seat, the imperial country-palace of Oranienbaum; while the empress had retired to that of Peterhof. From this place Catherine repaired early in the morning, attended by count Orlof, to Petersburg, where she presented herself to the Ismailofsky guards. In the course of the harangue which she made to them, she declared, "that as the Tzar intended that night to put her to death, as well as her son, she had taken to flight, as the only means of escape, and that from a confidence in their attachment, she threw herself into their hands." The soldiers, roused to indignation, swore that they would die in her defence. When Razumovski, their colonel, arrived, they declared Catherine sovereign; and Orlof, in the mean time, succeeded in bringing over the artillery to her side. In two hours the empress proceeded, at the head of 2,000 men to the church of our lady of Kazar. The archbishop of Novgorod, attended by his priests, received her at the altar, and placing the imperial crown upon her head, proclaimed her sovereign of all the Russias, by the name of Catherine II., and Peter Petrovitch her successor.

Catherine took the usual oaths, and on her arrival at the palace of Elizabeth, crowds flocked to take the oath of allegiance. The senate acknowledged her as sole empress. Peter's uncle, prince Lewis, was preparing to adopt hostile measures, but he was immediately surrounded, and placed under arrest. Before night 15,000 men were at the command of the empress, and the city, in which strict order prevailed, was prepared to make a formidable defence.

The conspirators now resolved to avail themselves of the enthusiasm of the troops, and march against the emperor. Catherine, dressed in the uniform of the guards, decorated with the order of St. Andrew, and accompanied by the princess Dashkof, also in uniform, rode through the ranks; and Potemkin, an ensign in the horse-guards, observing that she had no plume in her hat, rode up to offer his,—a trait of gallantry which was not forgotten. At six in the evening, the empress in the same dress, with an oaken wreath in her hat, a naked sword in her hand, and mounted on a grey steed, marched at the head of 10,000 men against her husband.

While the conspiracy spread through the capital, this infatuated prince persevered in his fatal delusion. About two o'clock in the morning, an officer in his confidence, having with difficulty procured admission to the palace, informed him that a plot to dethrone him was approaching to a crisis Peter, still incredulous, instead of thanking the faithful adherent for his kind intelligence, ordered him to be arrested, and remained in perfect composure, thus suffering the first precious moments, in which, perhaps, by adopting vigorous measures, he might have averted the misfortunes that threatened him, to pass unemployed. Accompanied by his mistress, Gudovitch, Munich, and many of the nobility of both sexes, he left Oranienbaum at eleven o'clock, intending to celebrate the festival of St. Peter and St. Paul, at Peterhof. On the road, he received the dreadful confirmation of what had happened, learnt that his consort was not at Peterhof, and sent messengers to bring him accurate intelligence of every transaction; but *none of them returning*, he now first began to open his

eyes on the fate that awaited him. Irresolution, perplexity, plans and projects, formed one moment, and rejected the next as impracticable, now swayed the minds of Peter, and his male and female attendants at Peterhof. Munich, with his characteristic valour, advised him to march forward with the Holstein troops, who had been ordered from Oranienbaum, directly to the capital; and had this advice been followed, the emperor might perhaps have preserved his crown. But though he seemed disposed at first to adopt a resolution, that was no less prudent than manly, he was prevented by the treachery of his courtiers, and the fears of his female attendants. It was then recommended by Munich, to take refuge in Cronstadt, and as the proposal was unanimously approved, general Devier was sent to prepare for the emperor's reception.

The emperor and his suite embarked for Cronstadt, but as admiral Taliezin, who had been dispatched by the partizans of the empress, had gained the soldiers by bribes, and made himself master of the place, when Peter appeared at the mouth of the harbour, the troops refused to acknowledge him, and "Long live the empress Catherine," was echoed by a thousand voices. Gudovitch, seconded by Munich, notwithstanding the threats of Taliezin to sink the yacht, endeavoured to persuade the emperor to land, but still timid and irresolute, he would hear of nothing but flight. When the yacht was at some distance from the port, Peter called Munich, and with an air of despondency, asked him what he ought to do; "Proceed instantly to the squadron at Revel," replied the marshal, "then embark for Pomerania, take the command of your army, return to Russia, and in six weeks Petersburg and all the empire will submit to your authority."

The courtiers, however, exclaimed against this resolution, and Peter returned to Oranienbaum at four o'clock in the morning. The Holstein guards, who had returned from Peterhof, surrounded him, and with tears in their eyes, implored him to lead them against the conspirators. Munich seized this occasion; "come," said he to the emperor, "march against the rebels, I will go before you, and their swords shall not reach you

till they have pierced my body." But Peter, subdued by his fears, yielded to those who counselled him to seek an accommodation with Catherine.

In the mean time, Catherine, having reposed about an hour and a half in a public-house called Krasnoi Cabak, eight miles from Petersburg, advanced to the convent of St. Sergius, at Strelna. Here she received a letter from Peter, acknowledging his misconduct, and offering to share with her the sovereign authority. Without deigning to reply, she proceeded, and Peter hearing of her approach, sent general Ismailof with a second letter, imploring pardon, and tendering the resignation of the crown, on condition of his being allowed to retire into Holstein, withh is mistress and Gudovitch. As Catherine's policy consisted in obtaining possession of the emperor's person, she persuaded Ismailof to betray his master, and deliver him into her hands. The perfidious general rejoined the emperor, and assured him that Catherine repented the precipitation of her conduct, and desired a reconciliation with her spouse. This news inspired Peter with the most lively satisfaction; accompanied by the countess Vorontzof, Gudovitch, and Ismailof, he entered into a carriage, and proceeded to Peterhof, where he arrived at half-past twelve o'clock. On his arrival, his mistress was carried off by the soldiers; Gudovitch, his aid-de-camp, was insulted; while he himself was led up the great stair-case by the servants, who stripped him of the marks of his order, his clothes, and several diamonds, and pieces of jewellery with which he was adorned. After remaining here some time, almost naked, bare-footed, and exposed to the derision of the soldiers, an old morning-gown being thrown over him, he was placed under a strong guard. The empress declined a personal interview with him, but sent count Panin, who in a long conference, induced the unfortunate emperor to write, and sign the following declaration,—with what kind of emotions may be easily conceived!

"During the short period of my absolute reign over the Russian empire, I have found from experience, that my abilities were insufficient to support so great a burden; and that I am unequal to the task of directing

so great an empire, either as an absolute sovereign, or in any other capacity whatever. I also acknowledge that I have been the cause of all the interior troubles which have afflicted the state, and which, had they continued much longer, would have overturned the empire, and have covered me with eternal disgrace. Having seriously weighed these circumstances, I declare without constraint, and in the most solemn manner, to the Russian empire, and to the whole world, that I for ever renounce the government of the said empire, never desiring to reign therein, either as an absolute sovereign, or under any other form of government. I declare also, that I will never attempt to re-assume the government. As a pledge of this, I swear sincerely before God, and all the world, to the present renunciation, written and signed with my own hand."

June 29th, O. S. 1762. "PETER."

When the unhappy prince had signed this instrument of his own disgrace and fall, he was conveyed in the evening to Ropscha, a small palace, twenty miles from Peterhof. Thus, in the course of two days, without the effusion of blood, Peter III., the lineal successor of the Romanofs, and grandson of Peter the Great, was precipitated from the throne to a prison, and Catherine, a foreigner, without an hereditary title, attained the absolute dominion of the Russian empire.

CATHERINE II.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1762.—DIED 1796.

CHAP I.

First Acts of Catherine's Reign.

HAVING succeeded in her designs against her unfortunate husband, and seated herself upon his throne, Catherine passed the night at Peterhof. On the following day, the nobility came to pay her homage; among others, appeared the relations of the princess

Dashkof, who, seeing them prostrate before the empress, said: "Madam, pardon my family, I have sacrificed it to you." Catherine commanded them to rise, giving them her hand to kiss. When her majesty perceived marshal Munich, who also presented himself before her, she called aloud: "Field-marshal, was it you then that wished to fight me?" "Yes, madam," replied the undaunted veteran, at the same time offering her his sword, "at that period, duty and gratitude engaged me to exert myself on behalf of my late master; but behold the pledge, that as you are now my sovereign, you will experience the same fidelity."

In the afternoon, Catherine returned to Petersburg, and at seven o'clock, rode triumphantly into the capital, amidst the mingled acclamations of the soldiers and people.

The crowds lining the streets, kissed her hand, which she held out to them as she passed. Many ecclesiastics were assembled round the avenues of the palace; as she rode through their ranks, while the principal clergy kissed her hand, she stooped down to salute their cheeks, a Russian custom which is expressive of the highest respect. Thus, though Catherine was a woman of lofty ambition, she stooped to the meanest artifices, in order to further her designs.

When, however, the tumult of the revolution had subsided, there was a re-action of sentiment in favour of the dethroned monarch. The people, forgetting his follies and vices, and recollecting the popular acts of his government, deplored his misfortunes. The sailors reproached the guards with betraying their master for spirituous liquors; while many of these, being filled with remorse for their rebellion, reproached in their turn the accomplices by whom they had been seduced. The officers in vain endeavoured to appease the men. The tide of popularity flowed so strongly in favour of Peter, that a leader only was wanting to re-instate him in his power.

The apprehensions of a second revolution were heightened by intelligence from Moscow, that when the governor announced the accession of the empress to the soldiers and people of that city, instead of the accla-

mation, "Long live the empress!" a deep silence, followed by sullen murmurs, ensued. The uneasiness of Catherine was now extreme. Such was the perturbation of her mind, that several times in the night she rose from her bed, and even deserted her palace.

At this important crisis, Alexey Orlof, a brother of that Orlof whose name was so conspicuous in the dethronement of Peter, resolved to render Catherine a wicked service. He repaired with a man of obscure origin, whose name was Tepelhof, to the prison where the emperor was confined, and proposed to dine with him. Liquor, according to the Russian custom, was introduced before dinner, and while Tepelhof amused the emperor, Orlof slipt strong poison into the glass intended for the prince. He drank the malignant potion, but it failed to produce the sudden effect which they had expected. They pressed him to repeat it, but he refused. They then called in prince Baratinski, and while Orlof having thrown down the emperor, pressed upon his breast with both his knees, the other assassins threw a napkin round his neck and strangled him.*

Alexey Orlof, hastened to Petersburg, and informed the empress of her husband's death. She retired with Panin and other counsellors, to determine what should be done. It being thought prudent that the death of the emperor should not be made public until the following day, Catherine dined in public as usual, and held her court in the evening. Next day, the event being formally announced while she was at table, she instantly rose from her seat, and with her eyes suffused with tears, withdrawing into a private apartment, did not make her appearance for several days. In conformity with this farce, she published a manifesto, stating the cause of the emperor's death.

The body of the assassinated prince was brought to

* It was first announced at court, that Peter was dangerously ill. Catherine immediately ordered her first physician to repair to Ropscha, and exert all his skill for the recovery of her unfortunate spouse. The doctor, deceived by the apparent concern of the empress, hastened to the prison, where he found the royal captive a corpse, and saw but too clearly the cause of his death. On his return to court, the empress asked him of what disease her husband had died; he made no reply to her inquiry, but drew his handkerchief from his pocket, and twisting it several times, exclaimed, "Thus, madam, thus!"

the monastery of St. Alexander Nevsky, and exposed in an open coffin for three days. It was clad in the uniform of the Holstein guards, the neck being supported with a military stock, which was vainly intended to conceal the marks of a violent death. His face was black, extravasated blood oozed through the skin, and so strong was the poison which he had swallowed, that those who ventured to lay their mouths on his, returned with swelled lips. His remains were deposited in the church of the convent, without monument or inscription. On the day of his interment, Petersburg was filled with sorrow. The populace reproached the guards with shedding the last drop of the blood of Peter the Great. The Holstein soldiers resorted to the funeral, and while they bedewed the corpse of their master with the tears of fidelity and affection, were regarded with esteem by the Russians, who sympathised with their grief.

Catherine conferred rewards upon the principal agents of the revolution, that had raised her to the throne. Panin was appointed prime minister, the Orlofs were honoured with the title of count; several officers of the guards received estates and promotion, and among the soldiers were distributed brandy and beer, the value of which the affability of the empress greatly enhanced. She even treated the friends of her late husband with lenity. His mistress, though at first banished to a village beyond Moscow, was afterwards permitted to marry admiral Polianski, and reside unmolested at Petersburg. Gudovitch was allowed to retire into his native country; the Holstein guards were either incorporated into different regiments, or withdrew themselves from Russia: and prince George, of Holstein, was raised to the rank of field-marshal and governor of Holstein, during the minority of the grand-duke. While the courtiers aspired to participate in the favour of the new sovereign, it was soon perceived that Orlof had already gained her affections. The principal conspirators were mortified, and the indiscretion of the princess Dashkof, who, having first made the discovery, divulged it among her friends, effaced the merits of her past services, and involved her in disgrace.

The great object, which occupied the first cares of

Catherine, was to reconcile her subjects to her authority. With this view, she resolved on a journey to Moscow, in order to celebrate her coronation. It was mortifying, however, to the vanity of this princess, that the people beheld her entrance into the city without acclamation, and that while they retired at her approach, they displayed the greatest avidity to see the grand-duke, taking an interest in the child, from the recollections of his father's misfortunes. Concealing her uneasiness, Catherine was crowned in the palace of the Tzars, and having endeavoured by flatteries, gifts, and promotions, to remove the aversion of the people, quickly returned to Petersburg.

The empress shewed no disposition to fulfil the promises which she had made to the monks, of restoring their possessions. Instead of revoking the decree of Peter III., she referred the matter to a synod, composed of persons subservient to her will. Those of the clergy who had not been secretly gained, were exasperated, and encouraged discontents among the populace and the soldiers; they published a manifesto, perhaps a forgery, but attributed to Peter III., in which the vices of Catherine were forcibly exposed. This was dispersed among the soldiers, and so inflamed their minds, that if the most vigorous measures had not been adopted, they would have engaged in open revolt.

The spirit of revolt among the troops, was soon after revived, and rose to such a height, that for a whole day the empress was supposed to be in imminent peril of her life. On this occasion, she discovered great firmness of mind. Having taken secret measures to quell the revolt, when several of her courtiers came to express their alarm, she upbraided their fears, reminded them of her fortitude in past dangers, and professed her belief, that the Providence which had called her to reign, and been her defence, would confound her enemies. This reference to Providence sounds very strange in the mouth of Catherine. The Orlofs, meanwhile, had by speeches, promises, and gifts, appeased the soldiers, and the chiefs were punished.

CHAP. II.

Wars and Conquests of Catherine.

THE foreign politics of Catherine related chiefly to Poland and Turkey; and the chief political and military events of her reign, originated in her transactions with these two countries.

The throne of Poland becoming vacant by the death of Augustus III., in 1763, and the flames of civil war raging in the country, Catherine sent thither a body of troops, and by her influence, count Stanislaus Poniatowski was elected king. Her design in this election, was to convert Poland into a mere province of Russia. She prevented the new sovereign from adopting those measures which would have promoted the order and prosperity of his dominions; and in the religious dissentions of that ill-fated country, found a pretext for interfering with military force.

A law was passed in 1563, by which an equality of privileges was secured to all the Polish nobles who professed Christianity; and to avoid invidious distinctions, they were styled "dissidents" in religion, a phrase intimating that they differed from each other in religious opinions. But the Catholics, as they increased in number and importance, applied this term to those who were not of their communion, and basely encroached upon their immunities and rights. During the interregnum between the death of Augustus II. and the election of Stanislaus, a decree had been made by the diet, which prohibited the dissidents from the free exercise of their religion, and excluded them from all posts and places of authority. On this, several of the European powers interposed, but the decree was confirmed by the coronation diet, held after the king's election. In October, 1766, the declarations from the above courts, including those of Russia, England, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark, were presented to Stanislaus, at an ordinary diet, requesting the re-establishment of the dissidents in their just, civil, and

religious rights. But the Popish party insisted on a confirmation of the decrees made against them. At length, after violent disputes, the business was referred to the bishops and senators; and all that the dissidents could obtain, was liberty to exercise religious worship under certain restrictions. About this time, the court of Petersburg added a force of 15,000 men to their troops already in Poland. The dissidents, being thus assured of foreign aid, entered, on the 20th of March, 1767, into two confederacies, at Thorn and Sluck; one signed by those of Great and Little Poland, the other by those of Lithuania. The cities of Thorn, Elbing, and Dantzic, acceded to the confederacy of Thorn, April 10th; and the duke and nobles of Courland, to that of Sluck, May the 15th. The empress of Russia, and king of Prussia, continued to issue new declarations in favour of the dissidents, and the Russian troops of Poland were soon augmented to 30,000 men. Other confederacies were also formed in different parts. All of them published manifestoes, in which they advised the inhabitants to treat the Russians as their defenders. The Catholics were equally active. The pope also sent exhortations to the king, the great chancellor, the nobility, &c. On the 26th of September, 1767, the confederacy of dissidents, and that of the malcontents, were united in prince Radzivil's palace. A few days after, the Russian troops in the capital were reinforced. On the 5th of October, an extraordinary diet was held, but the affairs of the dissidents met with so much opposition, that it was adjourned to the 12th. Next day, the 13th, the bishops of Cracow and Kiow, the palatine of Cracow, and the Straroste of Delmski, were carried off by a Russian detachment. The crime alledged against them was, that "They had been disrespectful to the empress of Russia, in attacking the purity of her intentions towards the republic, though she was resolved to continue her protection and assistance, for preserving the liberties of Poland, and correcting all abuses, &c. The diet then passed an act according to the will of Catherine, confirming the *dissidents* in all their privileges. It was vain to complain; prince Repnin was master in Warsaw, and the

Russian troops intersected the whole country. An extraordinary diet, convened the following year, therefore ratified the acts of the preceding, and passed others tending to establish the Russian ascendancy.

These innovations soon produced a civil war, which at last ended in the utter ruin of Poland. Dissatisfied with the privileges granted to the dissidents, the Catholic nobles formed a confederacy in the province of Podolia, and were encouraged by Austria and France, the latter of which powers enforced their applications for assistance to the Ottoman porte. They at first made themselves masters of the castle of Bar, whence the confederacy derived its name, and fought with great obstinacy and valour. But as the Russian forces were continually reinforced, they were compelled to retire into Cracow, which was taken by Apraxin, the Russian commander, after six weeks siege.

The grand signior had not been an indifferent spectator of the transactions in Poland. As the Russian ambassador, on being asked whether his court would abstain from interfering in the affairs of that country, declined to give a satisfactory answer he was thrown into the castle of the seven towers. A manifesto was delivered to the foreign ministers at Constantinople, justifying the measure, accusing Catherine of having violated the treaties of the Ottoman empire, and exposing her conduct in the affairs of Poland. Extraordinary preparations for war were made by the Turks, which were met by correspondent preparations on the part of the Russians.

In 1769, hostilities commenced between the two empires. The Khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of his people, supported by 10,000 spahis, penetrated into the Russian territories, where he burned many towns and villages, and carried about 4,000 families into captivity. This disaster, however, was soon after revenged by the Russian army, under prince Galitzin. This commander having under him general Stoffin and prince Dolgoruki, forced the Turkish entrenchment, near Choczim, and shortly after defeated them again in the same vicinity, after an obstinate engagement. The Russians then invested Choczim, but

were obliged at last to retreat, after the siege of that place, and the battles fought in its neighbourhood had cost them 20,000 men. General Romanzof also defeated a Turkish detachment, and committed dreadful devastations on the borders of Bender, and in the environs of Oczakow. On the 9th of September, prince Galitzin gained, on the banks of the Niester, a complete victory, in which the Turks had about 7,000 men killed, besides wounded and prisoners, and great numbers that were drowned in their retreat. This victory was followed by a second, on the banks of the same river, after a desperate engagement, in which the slaughter of the Turks was almost incredible. Not only the field of battle, but also the river, was for several miles covered with dead bodies. The Russians took sixty-four pieces of cannon; and the Turks abandoning the strong fortress of Choczim, with its magazines and numerous artillery, retreated tumultuously towards the Danube. A fatal spirit of licentiousness and insubordination now broke out in their armies. They had, within little more than a fortnight, lost almost 30,000 of their best troops, and nearly 50,000 more deserted in their tumultuous retreat. About this time prince Galitzin resigned the command of the army to general count Romanzof, and returned to Petersburg crowned with laurels. Romanzof carried on the war with successes equal to those of his predecessor; while general Elmo took possession of Yassi, and of the whole province of Moldavia.

Europe has seldom seen a war carried on with greater vigour and success, than that of Russia against the Ottoman empire. In September 1769, the fleets of Catherine sailed from Archangel and Revel, and steered for the isles of Greece. The British, the natural defenders of liberty, who ought to have supported both Poles and Turks, against the ambition of Catherine, to merit her friendship, supplied her ships with officers, and allowed them, to winter and refit in the ports of England and Minorca. Orlof, early in the spring of 1770, sailed from Port Mahon, and appeared off the *Morea*, to assist the Mainots and Greeks, whom the *empress* had prepared for revolt. Having reduced

Navarino, Coron, and Patros, he was joined by the squadron under admiral Elphinstone. With this fleet, consisting of seventeen sail of the line, and several smaller vessels, he encountered the Turkish fleet, which he obliged, after some slight engagement, to withdraw. Pursuing the Turks, he brought them to an action, July 5th, between Scio and the coast of Asia minor. The fight was desperate. Spiritof, a Russian admiral, engaging the captain Pacha, in the Sultana of 90 guns, the two ships ran so close, that they fastened themselves together with grappling-irons. In this situation, the Russians, throwing their hand-grenades from the tops, set the Sultana on fire; and as the two ships could not be disentangled, both were immediately in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without a possibility of receiving any succour, their fate was inevitable. The commanders, and most of the principal officers on both sides, were saved; but the crews, for the most part, perished with the ships, which blew up together with a tremendous explosion. After a short pause, the contest being renewed, and victory declaring for the Russians, the Turks took shelter in the bay of Tschesme, which proved their destruction. While Elphinstone blocked up the bay, four fire-ships were prepared to destroy the Turkish fleet. But no person could be found to conduct so dangerous an enterprise, till lieutenant Dugdale undertook to manage the fire-ships, and vice-admiral Greig to cover them. At midnight, Greig, in defiance of the Turkish batteries, began the attack, while Dugdale entered the harbour with his fire-ships; and as none of the seamen would venture, he, having lashed the helm, and pressing in, fastened himself the grapplings to the first of the Turkish ships, and saved his life by swimming again to the Russian squadron. The fire took such effect, that all the fleet, except one man-of-war and a few gallies, which were towed away by the Russians, was totally destroyed. The Russians then entering the bay, commenced a heavy cannonade and bombardment against the town and castle, which were both laid in ashes by the explosion of a powder magazine. At nine o'clock in the morning, scarcely a vestige remained of the fleet, the castle, or the town:

the whole was buried in one tremendous scene of destruction.

In the following campaign, (1771) Russia avenged herself on the Tartars. Prince Dolgoruki forced the famous lines which extended across the isthmus of Prekof, and which had long been considered impregnable. A ditch, seventy-two feet wide, and forty-two feet deep, with fortifications manned by 57,000 Turks and Tartars, presented a formidable barrier to his progress, but he surmounted it with his accustomed valour, and made himself master of all the Crimea.

Meanwhile, the Turkish army on the Danube, having gained considerable advantages over the generals Weisman and Essen, prepared to establish itself in Walachia, which induced Romanzof to resume offensive operations. The vizier was driven from his entrenched camp, into the mountains of Bulgaria, and his general Mousson Oglow, was obliged to abandon Giurgewo, which he had taken, and recross the Danube.

At the same time, the Russian fleet, though greatly injured, ruined the commerce of the Turks in the Levant, and carried terror to the gates of Constantinople.

But the Russians payed dearly for their conquests. The plague, passing into their armies from the Turks, spread into the towns and villages, and carried desolation to Moscow. It continued its ravages for two years, and the superstition of the people served to augment its horrors. A deluded visionary declared to a crowd which he had collected around him, that a picture of the virgin, at St. Barbara's gate, assured him, that if she were zealously worshipped, she would quell the pestilence. The story spreading, multitudes flocked to the gate, and implored the aid of the picture. Processions followed, in which the infected and uninfected mingling together, diffused the contagion. The archbishop of Moscow, a wise and enlightened prelate, caused the object of blind adoration to be removed, but this benevolent deed cost him his life. The infuriated populace forced a monastery in which he had taken refuge, threw him down without regard to his age or office, and beating him on the head, dispatched

him with their knives. Returning to the city, they vented their rage on the hospitals, the quarantine house, and the physicians and surgeons.* General Yerapkin, towards night, encountered the crowd with 150 soldiers, and two field-pieces, and after an obstinate contest, succeeded in its dispersion. Eight hundred died every day of the plague, and the tumults heightened the grief and terror that agitated men's minds.

Gregory Orlof shewed, on this occasion, a courage greatly superior to that which braves death in the field. He repaired to Moscow, visited the infected, gave the orders which their circumstances required, and employed every precaution to prevent the further spread of the disease. At length, the severity of the winter conspired with his authority and zeal, to abate the scourge; and Catherine rewarded his services, by striking a medal, and erecting a column in commemoration of them.

The year 1772 was wasted in fruitless attempts at negociation, and early in 1773, the contest was renewed. The Russian arms, however, were not crowned with their former success. Romanzof endeavoured to force his enemy to a general action; but all his efforts being defeated by the skill of the vizier, he crossed the Danube, and laid siege to Silistria. But after driving the Turks from their entrenchments into the town, and while he prepared for a general assault, he learnt that the vizier had dispatched 50,000 men against him, and taken measures to prevent his retreat. The marshal, under cover of an attack upon Silistria, silently retired during the night; but although he conducted his army across the Danube, this enterprise cost him the loss of 10,000 men, and the able general Weisman, and so much were his troops enfeebled, that he was obliged to withdraw to Jassi, to recruit and refresh. In defiance of the enemy's superiority, he advanced again to Silistria; but after six weeks of unremitted assault, the vizier constrained him to retire with great loss.

Romanzof, notwithstanding these partial reverses, was soon enabled to bring the war to a successful ter-

* A great number of these had declared that the disease which prevailed was *not the plague*, and had thus contributed to its propagation.

mination. In July, 1774, a treaty of peace was concluded, on the conditions which had been before proposed, but rejected. Russia obtained the free navigation of the Euxine, an unlimited trade with all the ports of the Ottoman empire, the cession of Kilburn, Jenickala, with a tract between the Bog and the Dnieper, Azof, and Taganrok, on condition that she restored her other conquests. The Turks acknowledged the independence of the Crimea, and as a reimbursement for the expenses of the war, stipulated to pay 4,000,000 of rubles. The joy which this peace occasioned in Petersburg, was extreme. The empress ordered eight days of rejoicing; the prison doors to be thrown open to all but traitors, and all who had been exiled to Siberia, since 1746, to be released.

Russia, though generally victorious in the field, had more need of peace than the Porte. The fame of her martial exploits was counterbalanced by the evils which preyed upon the interior of her domains. The plague had conspired with the sword to waste her population; while flourishing districts were converted into deserts, by the migration of the Kalmuck Tartars. This curious event was connected with some interesting particulars, which we shall briefly relate.

An entire horde of the Kalmucks had withdrawn, about the commencement of the eighteenth century, from the dominion of China, and settled in the vast deserts, which form the step of the Volga, above Astrachan. There they fed innumerable flocks on the scanty produce of the soil, and after the lapse of some years, acknowledged their dependence upon Russia; but being now oppressed by the empress, they resolved to return to their primitive seats. Having made secret preparations, they fled with such ardour and speed, as to defy pursuit, and reached the Chinese borders in the summer of 1771, where they placed themselves under the protection of the celestial empire. By this migration, Russia lost 70,000 tents, or families, and about 350,000 souls.

To this desertion, succeeded a rebellion, which desolated the finest provinces of the empire. A Kozack appeared in Kazan, assuming the name and character of the late emperor Peter III., and pretending to have

escaped from assassination by an extraordinary intervention of divine Providence. He declared that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court, and assigned plausible reasons for his long concealment. This impostor, whose name was Pugatsheff, is said to have borne a striking resemblance to the late emperor, a circumstance which undoubtedly prompted him to engage in this romantic and desperate enterprise. His courage and address procured him a great number of followers; and having, by the seizure of several fortresses and magazines, provided himself with arms, ammunition, and artillery, he sustained several engagements against large bodies of the empress's troops, commanded by able generals. This rebel was for some time so successful, that he at one time marched directly for Moscow, which was then ripe for insurrection; but after the conclusion of the peace with Turkey, his career was soon terminated. Being defeated and taken prisoner, he was brought in an iron cage to Moscow, and executed on the 21st of January, 1775.

The revolution of Sweden, in 1772, which destroyed the Russian ascendancy in the court of Stockholm, was a source of mortification to Catherine. She watched with extreme interest and jealousy, all the movements of the Swedish monarch, and fitted out a fleet which excited such alarm at Stockholm, that he resolved to have an interview with her, in order to discover her real intentions. He arrived at Petersburg, June 16th, 1777, and repaired to Tzarsko-selo, where the empress at that time resided. Conferences passed with feigned cordiality; Catherine honoured Gustavus with sumptuous entertainments, and dismissed him with rich presents. He took his departure, confirmed in his apprehensions of the empress's power; while she was more fully disposed to humble a prince of so much enterprise and ambition.

In 1779, a new war was on the eve of breaking out between Russia and Turkey. The independence of the Crimea, by affording to the Russians a passage into the Turkish dominions, was a source of perpetual discord. The divan, from a consciousness of his inability to maintain a second contest, permitted the establishment

of Russian consuls in Walachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia. Disputes, however, constantly arising, and Russia continually extending her pretensions, both sides began in 1783, to prepare for war. But in the midst of their hostile preparations, a treaty was concluded the following year, in which the full sovereignty of the Crimea, with the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban, was ceded to Russia.

This second treaty with the porte, and which conferred new advantages on Russia, was effected through the mediation of France. Catherine was, therefore, disposed to favour that nation, while the naval greatness of the English, awakening her jealousy, detached her from their interests. Vergennes, the French ambassador, conceived the plan of an armed neutrality, in order to counterbalance the maritime superiority of Great Britain, and succeeded in rendering the empress the principal instrument of his designs.

The British minister, aware of the intrigues of Vergennes, drew up a remonstrance, which Potemkin promised to present, and recommend to her majesty. Informed of this, the partizans of France gained a Mademoiselle Guibald, governess of the prince's nieces, who stole the paper from his pocket, and after it was enriched with notes, refuting the objections of the English minister, restored it to its former place. The empress, supposing that the notes had been added by Potemkin, was fully confirmed in the resolution of uniting the northern powers against England. She immediately formed a maritime league with Sweden and Denmark, and declared her determination to support it with the greater part of her naval force.

The journey of the empress to Cherson, in 1787, displayed to the eyes of the world, an extraordinary spectacle, and gave great alarm to the principal powers of Europe. The splendour of her progress surpassed all that the most luxuriant imagination had been accustomed to conceive. She was escorted by an army, and preceded by pioneers, who levelled the roads, which were illuminated for the space of 100 leagues. At the [illegible] day's journey, she found a temporary palace [illegible] for her reception, and furnished with all the

accommodations and luxuries that Petersburg or Moscow could afford. A new creation arose every where before her; and the splendid fictions of oriental romance seemed to be realized. Curiosity attracted numerous crowds of spectators, and gave the countries through which she passed, an air of extensive population. All the towns, by balls and illuminations, exhibited marks of happiness and joy; and her progress was a succession of pleasures and festivity. In the train of her followers, were the English, French, and Austrian ambassadors. At Kief, the splendour of her court was heightened by the concourse of foreigners, who arrived there from all parts of Europe to witness her magnificence, and adorn her triumph. From that place, she descended the Borysthenes, with a fleet, as superb as that in which Cleopatra paraded down the Cydnus. On her way, she was met by the king of Poland, who had caused the right bank of the river to be illuminated; and afterwards by the emperor Joseph, who, arriving some days before at Cherson, proceeded up the river, to honour her arrival. This journey of the Tzarina, gave considerable alarm to the Turks, who, instigated by Prussia, assembled an army of 150,000 men, on the banks of the Danube.

The return of the empress from Cherson, was immediately followed by a declaration of war on the part of the Ottoman porte. The emperor Joseph espoused the cause of Catherine, and hostilities immediately commenced. The combined Austrian and Russian forces, under the prince of Saxe Cobourg, laid siege to Choczim, which surrendered, after a long and obstinate resistance. But the principal operations of the Russians were directed against Oczakow, which, after a protracted siege, and desperate defence, was taken by assault, on the 17th of December, 1788.

During the progress of these hostilities with the Turks, Catherine found herself suddenly involved in an unexpected war with Sweden. Gustavus III., thinking this a favourable opportunity of checking the exorbitant power of Russia, marched into Finland, and commenced hostilities immediately on his arrival. But his men became mutinous, and would not fight; and at the same

time, the Danes made an irruption into Sweden. The intrigues of Catherine, which had fomented discontents among the Swedes, and induced the Danes to take the field would have even proved fatal to Gustavus, if the spirited interference of the English minister had not led the Danish general to withdraw his army, and agree to an armistice.

Nor were the hostile operations of Gustavus more successful by sea. The Swedish fleet of 15 sail of the line, and 5 large frigates, appearing in the gulf of Finland, admiral Greig put to sea with 17 sail of the line. A battle ensued, which though obstinate and bloody, was indecisive, the victory being claimed by both sides. After some other actions of no great importance, and attended with various success, a pacification took place on the 14th of August, 1790, between these two northern powers.

The war with the Porte was now prosecuted with renewed vigour. Before the close of the year 1790, Catherine beheld her conquests extended beyond the Danube, while Constantinople trembled at the advance of the enemy. The capture of Ismail by storm, was the last important event of this war, and will for ever tarnish its annals, After eight successive assaults, in which the Russians were repulsed with great slaughter, it was carried at the ninth. On the 22nd of December 1790, Marshal Suwarrof, who commanded at the siege, led on his troops in person at the last assault, and climbing up the wall, planted the Russian standard on the ramparts, displaying a courage that would have gained him honorable renown, had not his subsequent conduct consigned him to the abhorrence of the civilized world. The garrison, whose bravery a generous enemy would have treated with respect, was put to the sword by the merciless troops of the savage conqueror, and an indiscriminate massacre of the inhabitants added to the horrors of the scene. No age, sex, or condition was spared; the victors continued the carnage through the nights, and filled streets, squares, mosques, and houses with heaps of the wounded and slain.

These successes of Russia which seemed to threaten the subversion of the Ottoman empire, roused at last

the attention of Europe. England and Prussia began to arm for the fight; and Spain and Denmark also interfered, although in a less decided manner. At last, however, a peace was concluded the 11th of August, 1791, by which Catherine renounced all her conquests except Oczakow, and the region between the Bog, the Euxine, and the Dniester. This war which originated in the ambition of the empress, consumed, it is said, 130,000 Austrians, 200,000 Russians, and 370,000 Turks,—in all 660,000 men.

The course of events has obliged us for the sake of arrangements, to follow the connected series of the transactions between Russia and Turkey, but we shall now return to the affairs of Poland. We have seen this unhappy country divided into hostile confederacies, and made the ensanguined theatre of civil, religious, and foreign war. This scene of misery and desolation, continued during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771. A great part of the country was reduced to a mere desert, and many of the principal families retired with their effects into foreign lands. The plague spreading from the frontiers of Turkey, into the southern provinces, swept off, according to the common accounts, 200,000 people. The Austrian and Prussian troops entered the country on different sides; and the confederates found themselves, in a short time, surrounded by those who seemed to have nothing else in view than an absolute conquest of the country. Before matters came to this crisis, however, the confederates formed a design of assassinating the king, on account of his supposed attachment to the dissidents. This extraordinary attempt was made on Sunday night, September 3rd, 1771, by about forty conspirators, under three chiefs; who had been hired and sworn to bring the king, dead or alive, to Palaski, a Polish nobleman, and leader of the confederates. The royal carriage was fired into, and all the king's attendants put to flight; the king was cut across the head with a sabre, seized by the collar, and dragged along the ground between horses at full gallop, for near 500 paces. The conspirators afterwards mounted him upon a horse, and rifled his pockets, when the majority dispersed, leaving only seven with him.—

At last all had left him, the night being dark, except Kosinski, who resolved to save his life, upon the king's assuring him of a pardon. They stopped at a mill, whence Stanislaus sent a line to one of his generals, to inform him of his miraculous escape.

The partition of Poland was first projected, it is said, by the king of Prussia. Polish, or Western Prussia had long been an object of his ambition: exclusive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local situation rendered it highly valuable to him, as it lay between German and Eastern Prussia.

When, in 1769, the whole kingdom became convulsed, and at the same time desolated by the plague, he, under pretence of forming lines to prevent the spreading of the infection, advanced his troops and occupied Polish Prussia. Though now master of the country, and by no means apprehensive of resistance from the Poles, yet, as he was aware that the security of his new acquisition depended upon the acquiescence of Russia and Austria, he planned the partition of the rest of this unhappy country. He first communicated this project to the emperor, either on their interview at Niess, in Silesia, in 1769, or in that of 1770, at Neustadt, in Austria. To induce the empress of Russia to unite in the work of spoliation, he dispatched his brother Henry to Petersburg, who suggested to her, that the house of Austria was forming an alliance with the Porte; that, nevertheless, the friendship of that house was to be purchased by her acceding to the partition, &c., until Catherine, anxious to push her conquests against the Turks, closed with the proposal, and received, "nothing loth," her famous portion of the Polish territories. The treaty of division was signed at Petersburg in February, 1772, by the Russian, Austrian, and Prussian plenipotentiaries. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonstrated against the usurpation; but remonstrances without assistance, were useless. By this partition, almost all the south-east parts of Poland, bordering on Hungary, were allotted to Austria; a large tract of country, on the banks of the Dnieper, was ceded to Russia; and his Prussian majesty obtained Polish Prussia, and some districts the nearest to Brandenburg.

The partitioning powers compelled the Poles to call a diet, menacing the whole kingdom with military execution, in case of a refusal to sign a treaty for the cession of the territories to which they laid claim. Such however, was the spirit of the members, that, notwithstanding the deplorable situation of their country, and the threats and bribes of the three powers, the treaty was not carried through without great opposition.

On the 18th May, 1792, the Russian ambassador delivered a declaration, which was worthy of such a cause. It censured the haste with which the new constitution was adopted, and ascribed the ready assent of the diet to the influence of the Warsaw mob. It described the constitution as a violation of the principles on which the Polish republic was founded, complained of the licentiousness with which the name of the empress was treated, in some speeches of the members; and concluded by professing, that on these accounts, and in behalf of the emigrant Poles, her imperial majesty had ordered her troops to enter the territories of the republic, &c.

The Russians, with the Polish malcontents, advanced towards Warsaw, and Stanislaus, allured by promises, and terrified by threats, patriotic in his principles, but irresolute in his measures, received as allies the enemies of his country and his crown. The empress, resolving to annex to Russia another portion of the Polish territory, prevented the opposition of Prussia, by the proposal of a second partition. On the 25th of March, 1793, the Prussian monarch published a manifesto, to justify the entrance of his troops into Poland; and soon after took possession of Thorn, Dantzic, and the province called Great Poland. On the remonstrance of the confederates, the Russian ambassador declared his ignorance of the designs of Prussia; and the empress, unwilling as yet to develope the plan, advised the Poles to adopt defensive measures. The confederates, who had betrayed their country, by calling on the Russians, but who had not foreseen the fatal project of dismemberment, lavished panegyrics on Catherine, and dispersed circular letters inviting the Polish nation to rise in arms, and expel the Prussian invaders.

Catherine and Frederic determined no longer to temporize, and announced their intention of making a second partition. They published a declaration, in which they complained of the prevailing anarchy of the kingdom, and asserted the necessity of confining Poland within more narrow limits. A diet was convoked at Grodno, in order to sign the cession of the provinces required: and the castle where the members assembled, was surrounded by two battalions of grenadiers, with some pieces of cannon, for securing the tranquillity of their debates. The king, at the same time, published a declaration, expressing, that "compelled by circumstances, having in vain solicited the support of foreign powers, and not enjoying the free exercise of his will, he submitted to the dismemberment of his country." The people, exasperated at the repeated acts of violence committed by the Russian troops, were now ready for a general insurrection, and the patriotic leaders, sending a committee to Warsaw, formed a confederacy, which soon spread its ramifications through Poland. A chief for the grand enterprise, was all that was wanted. The king had lost the public confidence. The troops unanimously chose the brave Kosciusko for their commander, and refused to march, unless he were placed at their head. Intrepid, indefatigable, and incorruptible, cool in the midst of danger, humane, just and generous, resolute in his projects, and rapid in his operations; he was the idol of the soldiery and the nation, of which he directed the energy, to his sole object, the emancipation of Poland.

After some time spent in organizing an army, in May, 1794, general Madalinski erected the standard of revolt, and penetrated into the palatinate of Cracovia; and Kosciusko arriving at the same time, all the citizens of Cracow assembled, and signed the act of insurrection. Kosciusko was elected their chief; declared generalissimo of the national forces, and vested with dictatorial power; implicit confidence in his virtue, prevented the imposition of any restraint on his authority, and this confidence he never abused. By this act, the Poles declared war against the usurper of their rights, and the invaders of their country, sacrificed ancient prejudices, abolished the feudal slavery, and bestowed on all

the inhabitants an equal enjoyment of civil liberty. Had such measures been adopted at an earlier period, Poland might still have ranked among the principal kingdoms of Europe; but she could not, at this time, collect above half of her former strength.

Soon after the proclamation of this insurrectional act, Kosciusko having learnt that a body of 12,000 Russians were advancing against Cracow, marched from that city with only 4,000 men, of whom the greater part were armed only with scythes and pikes, without artillery. With these he attacked and defeated the Russians, who lost 3,000 men, and twelve pieces of cannon. Such was the enthusiasm of his army, that a corps of peasants, armed with scythes, took possession of a battery of cannon, and bade defiance to the numbers and tactics of their enemies.

Early on the 17th of April, a commotion took place at Warsaw, which ended in the citizens seizing the citadel, and after a bloody conflict, expelling the Russians. The Poles set fire to several houses in the city, to dislodge the remaining enemies, and a dreadful slaughter and pillage ensued. They made Stanislaus promise, repeatedly, that he would not quit Warsaw; placed two municipal officers as a guard on him, and desired him often to shew himself to the people. The amiable monarch not only complied with these requests, but even sacrificed his property to the support of the national cause.

In the mean time, the Polish army daily increased, and the empress sent 56,000 men, to oppose its progress. Not to mention various skirmishes, which in general ended in favour of the Poles, a Prussian army, under general Elsner, on the 15th of June, took Cracow, Kosciusko not being able to move to its relief; after which Elsner joined the Prussian monarch, who arrived at Killee on the 25th, joined the Russian forces, and soon after encamped near Warsaw. In the end of June, a manifesto was issued by the emperor of Germany, on his troops entering Poland. Meantime, Kosciusko had contrived, with great valour and skill, to gain an entrance into Warsaw. On the 31st of June, the Prussians *began* a heavy cannonade on that city; a

dreadful fire was kept up on it by night and day, and an incredible number of lives was lost. His Prussian majesty at last attempted to make himself master of the place by negociation; but the citizens replied, that they would share the fate of the army, and the military men declared that they would conquer or die with their general. At length, after a fruitless attack of two months, the Russians and Prussians abandoned the siege of Warsaw; the Prussian monarch retreating to his own dominions, and leaving the sick and wounded at the mercy of the Poles.

On the 10th of October, a dreadful battle took place between the Russians and Poles. The Russians advanced twice, and were twice repulsed; but the Poles, leaving their favourable position on the heights, boldly pressed on, till the Russians, forming anew, and turning back on their pursuers, the rout became general. Kosciusko displayed all the talents of a general, and all the courage of a soldier, flying from rank to rank, and imploring his troops to rally on the field. At length, after having had three horses killed under him, he fell, and was wounded by a Kozack. He rose, but was again knocked down by a Kozack, who was aiming at him a mortal blow, when his arm was held by the Russian general, whose wife Kosciusko had lately allowed to depart from Warsaw. Kosciusko requested death, but the general preferred taking him prisoner. The best medical assistance was afforded him, and every attention was paid to his recovery. As soon as he was able to travel, he was sent to Petersburg, where the empress kept him a close prisoner.*

The defeat of Kosciusko excited universal regret at Warsaw, yet the supreme council published a spirited proclamation, exhorting the Poles to remember their motto, Liberty or death! to preserve their union, and redouble their efforts. But although their courage continued the same, the genius of Kosciusko no longer directed their operations; and his downfall seems to

* The emperor Paul gave liberty to Kosciusko, with permission either to reside in his dominions, or to retire to America. In his way to the latter country, he visited London, and was treated with the respect due to his merit. He afterwards left America, and took up his residence in France.

have determined the fate of his country. The shattered remains of the Polish forces retreated into the suburbs of the capital, in order to make their last stand within their fortifications. After the junction of the different Russian corps, the city was summoned to surrender. On its refusal, the Russians resolved on assaulting the suburb of Prague, separated from Warsaw by the Vistula, and defended by above 100 cannon. The ferocious Suwarrow ordered his soldiers to mount to the assault as they had done at Ismail, by climbing over their dead and wounded countrymen, as well as their enemies, and to fight only with sabre and bayonet. The Russians obeyed with savage impetuosity, and presented themselves all at once, before the lines at Prague. After a bloody conflict of eight hours, resistance on the part of the Poles ceased: but the massacre by Suwarrow continued for two hours longer; and the pillage lasted till next day at noon: 5,000 Poles were slain in the assault, and the rest imprisoned or dispersed. The citizens were now forced to lay down their arms, and their houses were plundered by the merciless Russians; who, after the battle had ceased 10 hours, at nine at night, set fire to the town, and again began to massacre the people; thus 9,000 persons, unarmed men, defenceless women, and harmless infants, perished, either in the flames, or by the sword, and nearly the whole suburb was reduced to ashes. During this siege, not fewer than 30,000 Poles were put to death.

The suburb being reduced, and its gallant defenders slain, the citizens of Warsaw attempted in vain to capitulate: their proposal was rejected, and the city was obliged to yield itself up to the mercies of the empress. The remainder of the Polish troops, who had survived the assault of the suburb, refusing to submit, attempted to effect a retreat from the place; but being surrounded by the enemy, some were killed, others dispersed, and some were compelled to surrender. General Madalinski, with a determined band, fled into Gallicia.

On the 9th of November, 1794, Suwarrow made his triumphal entry into Warsaw, during which the citizens observed a mournful silence. On the 10th, he

went with much pomp to pay his respects to Stanislaus; and to complete this execrable tragedy, the 1st of December was set apart for solemn thanksgiving, and *Te Deum* sung for the triumph of lawless plunder, and powerful oppression. A strong military force was stationed at Warsaw, and cannon pointed at the city in every direction, to keep it in subjection. Stanislaus soon after received an order to repair to Grodno, whence he was removed to Petersburg, where he had a pension and a palace assigned him, and died A. D. 1798.

The courts of Petersburg, Berlin, and Vienna, proceeded to divide the conquered kingdom. Warsaw fell under the dominion of Prussia. The Vistula was made the boundary between Prussia and Austria. The Bog marked the limits of the Russian and Austrian dominions. The Niemen determined those of Russia and Prussia. One half of the city of Grodno was allotted to the king of Prussia, and the other to the empress. Bresesk was made the central point of the frontiers of the three co-partitioning states. Thus, the once powerful kingdom of Poland, not inferior to France in extent and fertility, was at last struck out of the catalogue of nations, and divided as a prey between Russia, Austria, and Prussia.

The subjugation of Poland was the last important effect of the foreign politics of Catherine II. She joined the coalition against France, but took no active part in the support of its measures. Incessantly anxious to extend her dominions, she turned her arms against Persia, under the pretext of supporting Ali Khan, one of the descendants of the Sophis. Her general, at the head of a formidable army, penetrated into the province of Daghestan, and took the city of Derbent. He afterwards attacked Aga Mahommed, but was defeated, and obliged to retire into the city; in consequence of which, a strong body of Russians was ordered to reinforce his army. In the midst of these plans of aggrandisement, the hand of death arrested Catherine. She expired of an apoplexy, on the 9th of November, *1796*, in the sixty-eighth year of her age, and the *thirty-fifth* of her reign.

CHAP. III.

Catherine's Person, Character, and Improvements of the Empire.

BEAUTIFUL in her youth, Catherine preserved a majestic gracefulness to the end of her life. Though of a moderate stature, as she was well proportioned, and carried her head high, she appeared tall. Her forehead was open, nose aquiline, mouth agreeable, chin rather long, eyes blue, with thick darkish eye-brows, and auburn hair. She usually dressed in the Russian manner, and except on festivals, was plain in her attire. Her form, gait, and looks bore marks of superiority and command.

The habits of this princess are said to have been in general regular and temperate. She rose usually at six in the morning, and after a light breakfast, transacted business with her secretary till ten, when sitting down to her toilet, she signed papers of various kinds. At eleven she went to chapel, or spent the time with her grand-children, the princes Alexander and Constantine. Her dinner, always on the table about one, seldom detained her above an hour. Business then engaged her an hour or two, when she repaired to the theatre, or a private concert, and, if there was not a court, spent the evening with a small party at cards, retiring, generally, without supper, between ten and eleven. This order and temperance, with equability and cheerfulness of temper, contributed to preserve her health, which was rarely affected.

The character of this extraordinary woman, is not so easily to be described as her person, or habits. Her inconstant amours must stamp her memory with indelible disgrace. She formed a connexion with count Poniatowski, during the life-time of her husband; and fourteen other lovers are said to have become her favourites in turn. These cost her subjects £42,000,000, presented them with a most pernicious example, and exposed them to all the insolent tyranny of inferior retainers and minions.

It may be justly questioned whether the great exploits, displayed during the reign of Catherine, are not more to be ascribed to the natural strength of the empire, the force of which it was her business to collect and concentrate, than to any superior personal genius which she possessed. Her chief merit as a sovereign, seems like that of queen Elizabeth of England, to have consisted in selecting able ministers, admirals, and generals, to carry on the operations she had planned.

The splendour of Catherine's reign was sullied by injustice and cruelty. She ascended the throne over the body of her deceased husband, and is more than suspected to have been privy to his death. It is highly probable, that she procured the private assassination of prince Ivan; it is certain, that by the most treacherous means, she shut up the princess Tarrakanoff, a daughter of the empress Elizabeth, in a fortress where she was never more heard of. Her invasion and partition of Poland were monuments of her ambition, injustice and perfidy; while the massacres committed by her armies, were worthy of the most savage troops, in the most barbarous ages and climes.

But with all her crimes and vices, it must be allowed that Catherine did more to civilize her barbarous subjects than even Peter the Great. In Petersburg alone she founded thirty-one schools, in which 6800 children of both sexes were educated at the annual expense of 754,335 rubles. On the 21st of January, 1785, she visited the principal of these seminaries, and passed a long time in examining the classes, and the proficiency of the youth; on which occasion a marble tablet was fixed in the wall of the fourth class, with this inscription, in gold letters: THOU VISITEST THE VINEYARD WHICH THY OWN HAND HATH PLANTED. She superintended the education of her own grandsons, and even wrote books for their instruction.

Catherine condescended to purchase the praises of several French philosophers. She corresponded with Voltaire and d'Alembert; she offered the latter a salary of 24,000 livres to undertake the education of the grand-duke, bought Diderot's library to enable *him* to portion his daughter, and leaving it in his posses-

sion, gave him a pension as librarian. After the example of some of the tyrants of antiquity, she renewed the singularities of royal and philosophic banquets. The imperial resentment however was excited on some of these occcasions; and wit was rewarded with banishment: a premium which Diderot received for his frankness.

The compliment which the empress paid to the rhetorical merits of Mr. Fox, by requesting his bust, and placing it between those of Cicero and Demosthenes in her library, for his having prevented the threatened rupture between Great Britain and Russia, reflects honor on her memory, as well as on that of the orator.

But her greatest effort for the improvement of science was in 1767, when she employed the celebrated Drs. Pallas, Gmelin, Euler, and several other eminent men, to travel through her vast dominions, to determine the geography of her extensive territories, the position of the chief towns, their temperature, soil, and productions; and the manners of the inhabitants, &c. This survey of her empire will better immortalize her name than all the conquests she achieved.

The magnificence which the Russian court had affected, during the reign of Elizabeth was retained and even increased during that of Catherine. At an entertainment in 1766, which the empress chose to name a carousal, the principal nobility appeared in the most sumptuous dresses sparkling with diamonds, and mounted on horses richly caparisoned, in a magnificent theatre erected for that purpose. Here all that has been read of in the ancient jousts and tournaments, was realised and exceeded in the presence of thousands of spectators, who seemed to vie with each other in the brilliancy of their appearance.

The empress, who had a very just taste in architecture, designed several buildings equally useful and ornamental to her capital; and with great liberality encouraged the introduction of arts and manufactures. An academy was instituted of sculpture, painting, architecture, &c., a magnificent and elegant building was erected for it, and many pupils supported in it at the expense of the crown. Several very promising

youths have been educated in this institution; but as the Russians are very fond of finery, and cannot be persuaded that any thing fine was ever done by their countrymen, the students are all on leaving the academy, exposed to poverty and neglect.

In order to people the extensive deserts of her empire, Catherine assured foreigners of a hearty welcome in her dominions, pointed out the districts adapted to purposes of agriculture, offered them money to defray the expenses of their journey, and granted the free use of a capital for ten years, exempted from civil and military services, and for a certain time, from imposts, with freedom to follow their own customs, laws, and religion. Multitudes were allured by these offers; 10,000 families settled in the government of Saratof alone. But these emigrations were more ostentatious than useful, and many of the colonists repented of their folly.

Many colonies of German peasants were in various places settled on the crown lands, to teach the natives the management of the dairy: a branch of rural economy of which the Russians were till this period so completely ignorant, that there is not in their language an appropriate word for butter, or cheese, or even cream. The Russians hoped to be likewise instructed in agriculture; but the colonists were poor and ignorant; and this part of the scheme failed of success.

The empress, soon after her accession, promised to direct her cares to the impartial administration of justice; and her promises were soon fulfilled in several beneficial regulations. A registrator of the government chancery of Novgorod, having been accused of receiving money for administering the oath of allegiance, she banished him to Siberia for life, and issued a severe decree against bribery and corruption. She confirmed the abolition of the secret state inquisition, and determined the line which ordinary tribunals ought to pursue, with regard to crimes against the state, as well as the character of those crimes. The edict of Elizabeth against capital punishments was however revoked, as it was deemed impossible to keep the Russians in subjection by other means than terror.

The jurisprudence of Russia, notwithstanding the labours of Alexey Michaelovitch and Peter I., had not attained a consistent form. The laws which had been accumulating from age to age, were perplexed, insufficient, and contradictory; and while they embarrassed judges of integrity, delayed and burdened the administration of justice, as well as afforded scope for the greatest criminality, abuse and oppression. Catherine formed the design of correcting these disorders.

The empress, in order to facilitate the dispatch of business, divided the college of the empire into separate departments, each having its appropriate concerns. That no pretext for corruption might remain, she increased the salaries of the judges, and insured them half-pay, when age and infirmity should oblige them to retire. She then ordered deputies from all the provinces of her vast empire to assemble at Moscow, to deliver their opinions upon a new code of laws, which she designed to frame.

Persons, different in manners, dress, and language, many of them ignorant of the nature of laws, drawn together to discuss regulations, for their government, afforded a curious spectacle, unexampled in the annals of the world. The business was opened, by reading the instruction composed by the empress herself, to direct in framing the new code. These instructions, which consist chiefly of principles and maxims drawn from the works of Montesquieu and other French authors, and breathe a liberal and philanthropic spirit, excited bursts of applause from those, who ignorant perhaps of the subject, wished to gain the favour of Catherine, or escape from Siberia. The reflection of the deputies, from the Samoyedes, who had the courage to express themselves freely, deserves to be recorded. "We are a simple and honest people," said they, "we peaceably tend our rein-deer. We want not a new code; but make laws for our neighbours, the Russians, that may stop their depredations."

The debates which succeeded, were less unanimous. Though some of the Russian nobility of contracted and illiberal minds, had ventured to affirm, that they would stab the *first man* who should propose to emancipate

the boors, count Sheremetef, the wealthiest person in Russia, arose and declared that he would agree to give liberty to the peasants. A contest ensued, which grew so violent as to threaten dangerous consequences, and the deputies were dismissed never to meet again. The new code melted away without notice; but in the mean time, many patriotic things were done, Taxes were frequently remitted where they were burdensome. Every person was declared free who had served government without pay for two years. No man was allowed to send boors from his cultivated estates to his mines in Siberia, nor to any distant estates, but for the purposes of agriculture.

With a view to encourage trade and commerce, Catherine abolished several monopolies belonging to individuals and companies, as well as the crown, and allowed a free trade in many articles, on which great restraints had been imposed. The trading companies established at Kamtshatka, and the mouth of the Kovima, which the empress had encouraged to make discoveries, sent an account of several small islands, which they had discovered in latitude 64°., named Aleyut, and at which they had established a trade in furs. On receiving this information, her majesty ordered colonel Blenmer, with several geographers to sail from the river Anadir, and prosecute the discoveries of the trading companies.

As connected with the subject of trade, may be mentioned the Lombard bank, a singular institution. To furnish those who were disposed to improve their lands, the empress opened a bank with a capital of 33,000,000 of rubles, and power to issue bills to the amount of 100,000,000; of the capital, 22,000,000 were to be lent to nobles, for the term of twenty years upon mortgages on their estates, at an interest of 5 per cent. besides 3 per cent. to liquidate the debt. The remaining 11,000,000 were to be lent to merchants and tradesmen for the same period of years, with the same payment, for the purpose of reimbursement, but at an interest of 4 per cent. This bank was to serve as an insurance office against fire, and a depository for money.

In 1768, the empress submitted to the danger of inoculation, in order that her subjects, to whom the practice was unknown, might be benefited by her example; and the experiment under Dr. Dimsdale, an English physician having happily succeeded, it was commemorated by an annual thanksgiving.

Though policy induced Catherine to affect reverence for the doctrines and rites of the Greek church, it is probable that she had imbibed the sentiments of the French philosophists respecting religion, and regarded all forms of worship with indifference, if not contempt. She afforded all sects not only protection, but eligibility to any office or dignity under her authority. She not only supported islamism in the Crimea, the catholic faith in Poland, and indulged protestants and pagans with protection, but her confessor, by her orders, invited ecclesiastics of all communions, on the day of blessing the waters, to a grand entertainment, which she called the dinner of toleration. At the same table were seated ministers of eight different forms of Christianity. For several years, the same ecclesiastic annually invited on the 6th of January to dine with him, the clergy of the several communions in Petersburg, who assembled in a body of fifteen or sixteen different persuasions, in the habits of their respective churches. At these meetings the archbishop of Novgorod and Petersburg presided, who, on the close of the repast, uttered aloud, "Glory to God in the highest, on earth peace, and good will to men." The evening passed in agreeable discourse, grave or humourous, in the several tongues of Europe. Catherine defrayed the whole expense.

PAUL.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1796. ASSASSINATED 1801.

PAUL PETROVITCH had attained his 42nd year, before the death of his mother placed him on the imperial throne. Having arrived at such years, under a princess of such talents as Catherine, it was natural to expect that he should be eminently qualified for the government of the state. But he was of a weak understanding, and had been denied the education of a sovereign. As his mother knew, not only that his title to the crown was unquestionable, but that a respectable party favoured his claim, she regarded him with extreme jealousy, and treated him in the same way as Elizabeth had treated his father. He was excluded from all business, kept in a state of the most abject and mortifying separation from the court, and in almost total ignorance of the affairs of the empire. Though generalissimo of the Russian armies, he was never permitted even to head a regiment, and though grand-admiral of the Baltic, he was interdicted from visiting the fleet at Cronsdadt. When the empress left Petersburg, she never entrusted the government of it to her son. In a word, she endeavoured by all possible means to prolong his childhood, to render him contemptible, and to retain him in the most absolute subjection.

The usual residence of Paul, when grand-duke, was Gatshina, a magnificent palace, built by Gregory Orlof, and on his death purchased by the empress as a present for her son. In this retreat, without employment, without knowledge, averse to reflection, Paul wasted his activity in the most childish pursuits. His grand occupation was to exercise a few battalions of soldiers. He was extremely fond of the menage, and amused himself frequently with the diversion of a tournament. He studied with attention whatever related to etiquette, the shape of a coat, the position of a hat, and the size of a pair of boots. He seemed not to be malignant; but he was ignorant of men and of affairs, conceited, eccentric, and absurd. There were certainly times at which he displayed evident marks of insanity, though

he occasionally gave proofs of a generous and tender disposition, and even of intellectual vigour.

On the day following the death of his mother, Paul made his public entry into Petersburg, amidst the acclamations of all ranks of people.

One of the first measures adopted by the new emperor, excited considerable surprise. He ordered the corpse of Peter III. to be disinterred and brought to the palace, where it was placed by the side of that of the deceased empress. Over both was a species of true lover's knot, with this inscription in Russ: "Divided in life, united in death." Count Alexey Orlof, and prince Baratinski, the only surviving assassins of Peter, were stationed as chief mourners, on each side of his corpse, while it lay in state for three weeks; and on the day of the funeral procession, they were compelled to appear in the same office, amidst all the ceremonial of pompous grief. This novel but awful species of punishment the callous Orlof endured with composure, but Baratinski was so overwhelmed with the scene, that he was enabled to support his station only by the application of volatile salts, and other stimulants.

The first public acts of Paul seemed to announce a reign of popularity. He liberated Kosciusko and other Poles, whom ardent patriotism had brought to a prison. He granted honours to the nobility, which though of little value, were adapted to gain their confidence. He conciliated the clergy, by raising the bishops to the orders of the empire, and founding a church to St. Michael. He inspired the whole nation with gratitude, by annulling a ukase which Catherine had issued for a numerous levy of recruits, and by permitting every coin of the empire to retain its actual value.

The guards, so formidable to the tzars, and the authors of so many revolutions, were rendered incapable of injuring him by a bold step of the new emperor. With these turbulent regiments Paul incorporated his favourite battalions of Gatshina, the officers of which he distributed among the different companies, at the same time conferring upon them a promotion of several grades. This bold measure induced several hundred officers, who belonged to the first families of the empire, to

retire in disgust. The emperor, irritated at their defection, published a decree that every officer who either had retired, or should retire from the guards, should quit the capital in twenty-four hours.

It was soon perceived that Paul, in becoming emperor, had not renounced the puerile follies of the grand-duke. From morn to night, he bestowed all his cares on the petty changes which he wished to introduce into military exercise and attire. The palace had the appearance of a place taken by the assault of foreign troops. His guard was mounted at different hours, in different costumes; and he employed himself in the court a considerable part of the day, in teaching his troops to manœuvre. In the midst of patterns of uniforms and accoutrements, he issued his regulations respecting hats, caps, feathers, boots, spatterdashes, cockades, and sword-belts. The officers who first appeared in the uniform which he had last introduced, were sure of reward.

Near his castle of Pawlowsky, he had a terrace from which he could survey all the centinels that were placed as a guard. On this terrace he passed a part of every day; and by means of a telescope, observed all that was transpiring around him. He often sent a lacquey to such and such a centinel, commanding him to fasten or unloose some button in his dress, to elevate or lower his arms, and to retard or accelerate his pace. Sometimes he went himself with these important orders, and, according as the whim dictated, either assailed the soldier with blows, or put a ruble into his pocket.

While thus occupied in regulating the dress of his soldiers, Paul published an edict that all who appeared in round hats, should have them taken from them, or torn in pieces. This absurd decree gave occasion to the most ridiculous scenes both in the streets and at the palace. The Kozacks and the soldiers of the police seized upon passengers and visitors, to free them from the obnoxious garb, and ill-treated those who dared to dispute the orders of an insane tyrant.

The tzar met one day in the gardens, a man with a round hat, who endeavoured to avoid him; but he immediately caused the offender to be brought before him. It

proved to be a clock-maker, who had come on business to the palace. The emperor, after having delivered to him a long harangue on the indecency of round hats, demanded some pins of the empress; and having formed a ridiculous cap, he placed it on the head of the workman, who was happy to escape with so mild a rebuke.

Pawlowsky being an open village, the emperor appointed guards, who examined all persons who entered it. All strangers were compelled to announce whence they came, whither they went, and what they desired. Every evening the houses of the village were officially visited, and every inmate arrested who had the misfortune to wear a round hat, or to be followed by a dog.

During one of Paul's visits to the dock-yards, he observed a boor caulking the bottom of a ship with great diligence: "That seems a very clever fellow!" exclaimed the emperor; and drawing towards him, he examined his work with the most delighted scrutiny. "Admirably caulked!" cried he, "you must be rewarded for this." The man, expecting a few rubles, prostrated himself in gratitude before his sovereign. "Rise, rise," cried the monarch, "I confer on you the rank of lieutenant-general!" The poor fellow sprung on his feet in rapture; and according to some accounts, embraced the emperor. This, however, did not satisfy Paul; but having instantly clothed the boor in the uniform belonging to his new dignity, he threw over his neck the badges of several military orders! The caulker was now made a lieutenant-general; but as the price of his honours he was bereft of his reason, and ever after lived a sad monument of human folly and weakness. He had a handsome pension settled on him for life; and passed his time in walking about the streets of Petersburg in full military dress, decorated with stars and ribbons; accosting every man of rank he met with the familiar appellation of brother.

All tradesmen were ordered to efface the French word *magasin* from the front of their shops, and substitute the Russian word *lawka*, which signifies shop; the emperor declaring that he alone could have magazines of wood, flour, corn, &c., and that no tradesmen ought *to raise himself* above his rank.

Paul, having imbibed the prejudices of his father, published an edict in which he commanded all carriages to be harnessed according to the German mode, and authorized the police, after the lapse of a fortnight, to cut the traces of every carriage that should be found harnessed in the ancient style.

It was an ancient custom among the Russians, that when they met the tzar, his consort, or his son, they should alight, and prostrate themselves in the snow, or dirt. This servile homage, which Catherine had wisely abolished, was re-enacted by Paul in all its rigour. Several persons whose coachmen passed on without observing the emperor, were thrown into prison.

A lady, who had come in search of a physician for her husband, whom she had left sick in the country, had the misfortune to neglect the carriage of the emperor as it passed; she was immediately thrown into prison, while her male attendants were sent to the army, to serve in the ranks. Terrified at this severity of the tyrant, the unhappy woman lost her reason, and the husband expired without relief. Two other women were punished with greater inhumanity for the same fault; they were shaven and scourged. On all occasions of public audience, persons were obliged either to perform the prescribed obeisance with the nicest care, or incur the displeasure of Paul. Those who were permitted to kiss his hand were compelled to make the floor resound by striking it with their knees, and to smack their lips aloud.

Among the many absurd whims which infected the brain of this monarch, was one for painting with various discordant colours, the bridges, watch-houses, and imperial gates throughout the empire. These mountebank coats were put on every thing that answered to this description, from one end of Russia to the other, by a special ukase, all in one day. The Red Palace was indebted for its fiery hue to a very simple circumstance. A lady of high rank, of whom his majesty was a great admirer, happened to appear one night at a ball, where he was present, with a pair of gloves of this colour on her arms. The fancy of Paul was so struck, that the next day it became his favourite tint; and he gave in-

stant orders that his new residence should be painted accordingly.

By another ukase, the emperor commanded that no cannon should ever be fired in the empire, except on imperial occasions. But as the higher order of nobility had always until that period, the privilege of discharging guns on their gala-days, they determined not to give up their martial sound, but to supply its place by a singular and witty invention. They accumulated a number of cows' bladders distended with wind, and laying them in rapid succession on large blocks of wood, caused them to burst at once by the action of a ponderous mould or mallet. An English traveller,* was present at a banquet, when a round of this curious ordnance was fired.

Hitherto, every man who had the boldness to present a request immediately to the sovereign, even under the reign of Catherine, was imprisoned. Paul, from the first day of his accession, appeared to abolish this severe measure, and received with his own hands several petitions that were presented to him. He even opened a kind of office in the palace, in which all letters addressed to him were to be deposited; and promised that when he had read them he would favour their writers with a reply. Very soon, however, this depository was filled, and Paul stood astonished at the number of his suppliants. He could not perceive that these would diminish in proportion as he answered them in order and with promptitude; and a perfect chaos ensued.

The emperor sometimes caused the alarm drum to be beaten two or three times a day, to assure himself of the vigilance of his troops. On a certain occasion, when he was dissatisfied with the manner in which they had performed their evolutions, he was enraged at the Russians in general, declaring that they were as passive as machines, but that it was impossible to inspire them with energy and zeal. The grand-duke Alexander being present, undertook to defend the troops, and averred that he would answer for the promptitude and fidelity of the garrison, if he would permit them to be awakened by a false alarm. Paul took his son at his

* Sir R. K. Porter.

word, and commanded the trumpet to be sounded at one o'clock in the morning of the following day. Alexander requested to have the order in writing, and put it into his pocket before his departure.

The emperor was sunk in his first sleep, when on a sudden, at the appointed hour, the alarm was given. Immediately the streets were filled with the inhabitants, and with soldiers in rapid motion: each one inquired the cause of the alarm, but could obtain no reply. The disorder and terror spread to the palace of the emperor: his attendants hurried into his apartment, and awaking him in an instant, informed him of all that was passing in the streets. Paul, forgetting the order which he had entrusted to his son, supposed that the tocsin of revolt had sounded, and that the arm of the assassin was at hand. He rose from his bed, dressed himself in haste, and mounting his horse, fled in the direction of Gatshina, followed by only two attendants.

Alexander soon after arrived at the palace, to announce to his father that the troops had assembled, and were waiting his commands. What was the surprise of the young prince on learning the terror and flight of the emperor! He immediately followed him with his suite; but Paul, who heard nothing but the trampling of horses, supposed that he was pursued, and redoubled his speed. At length the grand-duke, leaving his attendants in the rear, advanced alone, and saluted him; an explanation immediately took place between the father and son, who returned together in peace to the palace.

Amidst these varied and ridiculous eccentricities, the emperor performed acts of great humanity. He gave pensions to the unfortunate; founded hospitals for his soldiers; and distributed rations to officers whose incomes were inadequate to their support.

The emperor, from aversion to his mother, made a complete change in the tribunals and governments of the empire. The viceroyalties were remodelled, and their boundaries altered; a measure which, without conferring any benefit on the state, deprived twenty thousand persons of employment.

Paul, as another proof of dislike to his mother, refused to place upon his head the diadem which she had

worn with so much eclat for thirty-four years. The jeweller Duval was employed to make a crown of surpassing splendour and expense. It would require a small volume to describe the ceremonies and honours with which this crown was removed from the house of the jeweller to the imperial palace. Never was the ark of God among the Israelites surrounded with greater reverence and pomp; and Duval, like another Pygmalion, was obliged to fall on his knees and adore his own work.

Though the emperor at the beginning of his reign announced the most important reforms, promised a scrupulous attention to economy, and declaimed against the extravagance of his mother, he was soon beheld dissipating millions in palaces and crowns, and bestowing the most expensive favours on the most worthless of his attendants and friends.

The most important act of the reign of Paul was the law of succession, which he published in 1797, at his coronation, and which was declared the constitutional act of the empire. The regal succession was no longer to depend upon the caprice of the sovereign, but the crown was to descend to the eldest son of the emperor, and to all his male posterity. In defect of male issue, female descendants were to inherit the throne, proximity of relationship being always observed. If the heiress possessed a foreign crown, she was to renounce it before she assumed that of Russia. If she did not profess the Greek religion, she was to be compelled to embrace it. On her refusal to accede to these conditions, the crown was to pass to the next heir; and in case of a minority, the monarch was to appoint a regent to his successor. If he omitted such nomination, the regency was to belong to the mother of the minor, and, in default of a mother, to the nearest relation. The time of majority was fixed at sixteen years.

Paul was at first content to oppose the moral effects of the French revolution; but the conquests of the republic, the genius of Pitt, and his own hatred to republicans, excited him to enter into a coalition with England against France.

The Russian army, which had been assembled in

Gallicia by the orders of Catherine, and at the head of which Suwarof was waiting for orders to march into France, was not yet disbanded at the accession of Paul. The emperor was content to suspend its destination, and to send officers for the purpose of introducing into it the new dress and discipline, in which he took such ridiculous pride. This army was composed of 40 or 50,000 effective men, and of the same troops which had been employed in the conquest of the Poles. They advanced by short marches, during the winters of 1798 and 1799, and displayed the utmost ardour to engage their Gallic foes.

Suwarof had never been a favourite with Paul. He was a Russian in the full sense of the term, and consequently an enemy to the minute and precise discipline of the German troops. The emperor dreaded his popularity with the soldiers, but at first humoured him, and confirmed him in all his commands. He then sent him an order to establish the army upon a new footing, and to carry into effect the military regulations which had been issued to all the commanders of the empire. Suwarof displayed no inclination to comply with the commands of his sovereign, but even treated them with ridicule and contempt. This conduct wounded the pride of Paul, who concentered all his glory in military reforms, and who spoke of the shape of a button as essential to the success of his arms.

He immediately sent an order to the veteran general to resign his command, and repair to the capital without delay. Suwarof, who was anxious to communicate the order to his troops, caused them to be drawn up in order of battle, and having harangued them at considerable length, bade them a most pathetic adieu. "Comrades," said he, having laid aside his military attire, and the badges of the different orders which he had acquired, "the time perhaps will come when Suwarof shall again appear in the midst of you; then will he resume these spoils which he now leaves with you, and which he has always worn in the midst of his victories." The soldiers were filled with grief and indignation, and expressed their feelings in murmurs and groans. Their veteran chief then left them, having entrusted the command to his lieutenant-general.

Suwarof retired to Moscow; but a man so famous and popular, whose return, after a series of the most important services, caused a strong sensation throughout the empire, could not fail to excite the jealousy of Paul. An officer of police one day entered the asylum of the old warrior, and presented him with an order for his banishment into a miserable village. With an air of apparent indifference, Suwarof enquired how long a time was given him to arrange his affairs. "Four hours," replied the officer. "Oh, this is too kind!" exclaimed the general; "an hour is sufficient for Suwarof." He immediately placed his gold and jewels in a casket, and descended into the street, where he found a travelling carriage waiting to receive him. "Suwarof, going into exile," said he, "has no need of a carriage; he can well travel in the same vehicle in which he was wont to journey to the court of Catherine, or at the head of his troops; fetch me a sledge." A kibitka was brought; and in this humble conveyance, stretched on a mattress, and wrapped in his cloak, the old general travelled a distance of 300 versts. Arrived at the place of his exile, he was lodged in a cabin of wood, and placed under the surveillance of the officers of police. No person was permitted either to see him or write to him; and he who had been accustomed to a life of constant society and tumult, found himself all at once plunged into a state of the most complete insulation and rest. After a short time, however, the severity of his confinement was relaxed. His daughter, who had been married to a brother of the favourite Zubow, was permitted to visit him; and the emperor, whose mind had been softened by reflection, condescended to write him a letter of respect. The envelope of the epistle was inscribed in large letters: To the field-marshal Suwarof. "This letter is not for me," said the old warrior, on reading the address: "if Suwarof were field-marshal, he would not be exiled and guarded in a village; but he would be seen at the head of the armies of the empire." The courier, to his astonishment, was requested to carry back the dispatch unopened to the emperor, who received it without any remark, but commanded the general to be more closely watched.

Through the intervention of England, Suwarof was at length recalled from exile, and restored to the command of the Russian forces, who hailed his return with the most lively demonstrations of joy. An ancient prejudice of the Russians induced them to believe that if they died fighting against infidels, they should rise the third day from the dead and re-inhabit their villages, free, happy, and exempt from all future service. This prejudice being admirably adapted to the taste of vassals who devoted themselves to a military life from constraint, Suwarof, who was as remarkable for superstition as for courage, availed himself of it, to inspire his army with valour and patience amidst the toils and combats of a distant campaign.

To arrive and combat were the watch-words of Suwarof. On the 17th of June, 1799, he arrived in sight of the French, and resolved to attack them on the following day. The remainder of his army joined him during the night; he divided it into three formidable columns: that of the centre, composed wholly of Russians, was commanded by count Rosenberg; that of the right, consisting of Russians, Austrians, and Hungarians, was entrusted to general Foster; and Melas commanded the third division, which was the strongest, and entirely formed of the flower of the Austrian army. The French forces were drawn up for battle before Trebia. The advanced Russian guard, under the orders of prince Bagration, supported by some Hungarian regiments, attacked with great impetuosity the left wing of the French. General Dombrowsky commanded the Polish legion in that wing, which yielding to the superior valour of the Russians, was overthrown, and threw into confusion the right wing. Macdonald sent reinforcements to its relief; while Rosenberg, on his side, supported the Russians with the whole corps of Sweikowsky. The combat was renewed and maintained on both sides, with immense slaughter. The Russians displayed to the French that invincible obstinacy, that patient discipline, and that calm resignation to death, which have been so often their road to triumph. Renewing their ranks as fast as they were thinned by the enemy, they made constant advances, and compelled all before them to repass the Trebia.

The column of the centre, led on by Rosenberg, and in the rear of which Suwarof commanded, had gained the same advantage, after a still longer and more bloody contest. Twice the French, being driven across the river, had repassed it with new ardour, under the fire of this impregnable column, which they strained every nerve to surround. The rapidity of their movements, the superiority of their fire, the personal valour of both officers and men, nothing could triumph over the brute courage of the Russian troops. The French, weary of combat, and even of slaughter, repassed the Trebia, and changed the contest into a murderous cannonade, which destroyed whole companies of the Russians, who mistaking the retreat of their enemies for a flight, wished to follow them and cross the stream.

The night and the river separated the exhausted combatants; but this mutual cannonade was prolonged in the dark, and seemed to continue this memorable battle until the morrow, when it was to be renewed with undiminished fury.

It was recommenced on the part of the French, in the morning. Under favour of their batteries, their left wing repassed the river under the fire of the enemy, overthrew and pursued the right wing of the Russians unto the village of Curalega. There, Bagration rallied his troops, and being reinforced by succours, the French, attacked both in flank and rear, were stopped in their pursuit.

In the centre, the French had repassed the river, and attacked the Russians with similar success. Pursuing their advantages, victory seemed to decide in their favour, when a corps of Austrian cavalry attacked them in flank, and threw them into the greatest disorder. This brigade, consisting of 3000 strong, guarded the space between the column of the centre and that of the left. The French now found it necessary to change the order of battle, and to manœuvre, in order to cover their retreat. The enemy availed themselves of this movement to rally their forces; the battle was renewed along the whole line, until the close of the day, when the armies occupied the same positions as they had maintained before.

Suwarof, instead of waiting for a third attack, resolved himself to pass the river, and to decide this long and sanguinary battle; but Macdonald, having waited for reinforcements in vain, had retreated under favour of the night.

Thus terminated one of the most memorable battles that was fought during the war of the revolution. The French were unable to conquer, but neither could they be conquered. Inferior in number to their enemies, fatigued by a long and perilous march, deficient both in provisions and clothes, and surrounded by people opposed to their success, their army had neither the security nor confidence of that of the allies.

Suwarof soon after engaged the French under Joubert, and after an obstinate contest, defeated them with terrible slaughter. He then suddenly deserted Italy, and passed into Switzerland; while Paul, intoxicated with joy, gave him the title of prince, with the surname of Italus, and decreed by a ukase that he should be regarded as the first of generals, both of ancient and modern times.

In the mean time, a second Russian army, consisting of 40,000 men, was sent into the heart of Switzerland, under the command of Korsakow, to combat the French troops under Massena. The two armies met in the vicinity of Zurich, where on the 24th and 25th of September, 1799, a battle was fought in which the Russians sustained an unexpected and inglorious defeat. Their army would even have been totally destroyed, if new alarms had not obliged Massena to suspend his operations, and divert his attention to another quarter.

Suwarof with his army of Italy having gained the heights of St. Gothard, descended from them like a torrent of destruction. The rapidity of his march was the admiration of the French generals. This extraordinary man had the rare talent of inspiring his troops with the most blind confidence in his person and fortune. Mahomet never exerted over the Arabs an ascendancy more potent and marked than that of Suwarof over his Russian hordes.

Suwarof, having surmounted the obstacles which nature had opposed to his march, as well as dispersed

the enemy in several minor engagements, began to threaten the right wing of the army of Helvetia. But he was greatly surprised when he learnt the defeat and death of Hotze, the Austrian general, and the overthrow of Korsakow before Zurich. Such were the transports of his rage on the occasion, that he foamed like a lion, and was for some time unable to articulate a word. At length, he poured forth exclamations which expressed his astonishment and wrath, while they relieved the agony of his soul. He immediately dispatched a message to Korsakow, in which he commanded him to stay his retreat on pain of death, and to inform his soldiers that Suwarof with his victorious army was pressing forward to their relief. Threats, and the name of Suwarof, seemed to infuse new ardour into Korsakow's remaining troops; their retreat was stopped; and a bloody battle with the French ensued. In this memorable combat, the Russians were again defeated, and put to flight.

Massena in person, with a part of the division of Lorge and that of Mortier, marched against Suwarof, and arrested his course. This brave veteran, despairing of support from the enfeebled and scattered ranks of Korsakow, was for the first time obliged to sound a retreat. He retired before the enemy like an old lion, who, when the dogs which pursue him, approach too near, turns for a moment upon them, and shews them his terrible front. He abandoned part of his baggage and artillery, together with a portion of the wounded and sick; but Mortier, who was commanded to pursue him, could only break through two or three battalions of grenadiers, who devoted themselves to death for the salvation of the rest of the army.

The officer who was commisssioned to prepare a lodging for Suwarof during his retreat, was obliged to remove from it every thing that could displease him, such as books, articles of luxury, and especially glasses. If unfortunately these last fell in his way, he immediately dashed them in pieces. Often he caused the windows of the apartment to be taken out, declaring that he felt no cold, and the doors to be removed, boasting that he felt no fear; and then lay down on a

straw pallet, which he spread over the bed prepared for his repose. In spite, however, of his contempt for luxury and riches, he was very curious in jewels and precious stones. Catherine, on occasion of every victory which he obtained, sent him some valuable ornament; sometimes it was a branch of laurel set in brilliants; at others, an epaulette, a sword, or a star of some order, which she had conferred upon him as a reward. After the taking of Prague, she sent him a marshal's batoon, enriched with precious stones. Suwarof never removed any one of these gifts from his casket, without crossing himself, and kissing it with the most profound respect. Often, when on a march, or at table, he would suddenly inquire of his aides-de-camp, "Where are my jewels?" "Have you seen them?" "How many are they?" "How much are they worth?" "Why did our empress mother give them to me?" If precise and immediate answers were not returned to all these inquiries, the persons interrogated were treated as blockheads or fools.

Suwarof was deeply affected by his reverses of fortune. He appeared humbled by defeat; his blunt and sportive humour was exchanged for sullen taciturnity; his mountebank devotion for morbid superstition. When he halted, he shut himself up, treated every one with neglect and contempt, and was especially enraged at Korsakow, as the cause of his misfortunes. When he travelled, he lay at the bottom of his kibitka, concealed under his cloak, turning away his eyes from his soldiers, and refusing to shew himself to the armies, who looked to his presence as their solace, even in defeat. A report was spread that he had perished in crossing the Alps, and many soldiers and Kozacks upon seeing him again, after his retreat, were persuaded that it was his ghost who had appeared to them.

A Russian expedition against the French in Holland, which was undertaken in concert with the English, was shorter, and at the same time less honourable than the campaign of Italy. The duke of York, who commanded the combined armies, was obliged to capitulate, on condition that his troops should be permitted to embark for their respective countries, and that England

should restore the French and Dutch prisoners that she had taken during the war.

These multiplied and unexpected disasters, served to aggravate the fury of Paul. He cashiered and disgraced all the officers that were missing in the army, without inquiring whether they were dead or alive, killed or taken prisoners. He insulted the English and Austrian ministers at his court, commanding them to keep at a distance from him, and venting the most bitter sarcasms against his allies. He not only recalled his naval and military forces, but not being indulged with the cession of Malta, he entered zealously into the project of the French, for reviving the armed neutrality of former days. He laid an embargo upon the British shipping in his ports; and conceived an extravagant admiration for Buonaparte, which he was never backward to express. One day, general Pahlen being at dinner with him, he said he would give as a toast, the greatest man in Europe, and immediately drank, Buonaparte! Huzza! vive Buonaparte!

The king of Sweden, a zealous partizan of the armed neutrality, having gone to Petersburg to concert measures with the emperor, he entertained that prince with his favourite diversion of a tournament. In the evening, while the glass went briskly round, a dispatch arriving from Buonaparte, the conversation turned on the success of the French arms, the projects formed to humble the pride of England, and the prowess which the emperor had displayed in the course of the day. Inspired with the spirit of chivalry, Paul conceived the design of sending a challenge to all the potentates of Europe, which was announced in the court gazette of Petersburg, December 30th, in the following terms: "It is said that his majesty the emperor, seeing that the powers of Europe cannot agree, and wishing to terminate a war which has raged eleven years, intends to propose a place to which he will invite all other potentates, to fight them in closed barriers; for which purpose, they are to bring with them their most enlightened ministers, and most skilful generals, as squires, umpires, and heralds; such as Thurgot, Pitt, and Bernstoff. He intends himself, to have with him counts Vander, *Pahlen, and Kutusof.*"

While the emperor ruined the commerce of Russia, by an embargo on English shipping, and exposed the state to the calamities of a rash and destructive war, he continued to weary the patience of his subjects, by acts of folly, caprice, and insanity. Discoursing in private, with one of his nobles, his majesty, without any provocation, gave him a slap in the face, adding; "The salutation by the hand of me, Paul." As he passed along one day, he observed another noble looking at some men planting trees. "What are you doing?" said he, "Merely seeing the men work," replied the nobleman. "Oh, is that your employment; take off his pelisse, and give him a spade." He ordered the author of an epigram, in which his reign was contrasted with his mother's, to lose his tongue, and sent him to one of the Aleutian isles.

The emperor began to distrust even his ancient soldiers of Gatshina, that he had incorporated in his guards: he became more severe, more minute, and more fickle than ever in all the details of military service. By incessantly tormenting his troops, in order to assure himself of their fidelity and precision, he rendered their existence intolerable, and made himself the object of their general hate.

The officers trembled every morning in going to parade. The most trivial mistake, the most unintentional neglect was sufficient to excite the wrath of Paul. While reviewing some regiments in front of his palace, an officer was thrown from his horse, and dislocated his arm, but far from discovering any appearance of sympathy, the emperor kicked him as he lay on the ground.

Exiles and arrests were almost innumerable. The roads were crowded with kibitkas, employed in transporting prisoners to Siberia, or to the frontiers of Prussia. These transportations were made with the most hurried speed; the unhappy exiles had only an hour given them to arrange their affairs, and were often conveyed to a most rigorous clime, without being permitted to furnish themselves with the means of defence from the cold.

The regulations of Paul multiplied oppressions and punishment; his furious passions kept his courtiers, and even his family in constant alarm; and the vigilant

inspection which his spies exercised over words, looks, gestures, and the most indifferent actions, spread mistrust, suspicion, and dismay throughout Petersburg. A subject of ridicule among foreign nations, the contempt and the terror of his subjects, a plot was formed for his assassination, the particulars of which it will be proper to relate.

The chief of this conspiracy is said to have been Pahlen, military governor of Petersburg. The weight of capricious authority pressed hardly upon this ambitious noble, and he determined to free himself from its thraldom. Before he attempted any thing, however, he determined to provide himself with the means of justifying himself to Alexander, if his plans should succeed, and to the emperor, if they should fail. He perceived the great importance of implicating the heir to the throne in his designs, and of placing him between himself and Paul. He therefore immediately applied himself to alienate the emperor from the grand-dukes Alexander and Constantine, and to excite these against their father. It was their rights, he assured them, that he wished to assert, their lives that he was anxious to defend; but under pretence of zeal for their interests, he employed them as pretexts for his hatred, and instruments of his ambition.

Pahlen, finding that he had nothing to hope from the meek and submissive character of Alexander, depicted the prince to the emperor as a most dangerous son. He went farther: he dared to accuse him of plotting to usurp the imperial authority, and declared that he would not answer for the personal safety of the emperor, unless he furnished him with an order for his arrest. Paul, burning with indignation against his son, signed the required document. Pahlen immediately repaired to the grand-duke, and after having represented to him in the most lively terms, the necessity of anticipating the intentions of Paul, and of compelling him to abdicate, he opposed to the constant refusals of Alexander, the order of arrest. Although affrighted at the sight of this order, Alexander could not resolve on so bold an enterprize; but the hesitation of the prince was interpreted by Pahlen as a sanction to the meditated deed.

A few days before the fatal event, Paul, having heard some vague reports of a conspiracy, sent for Pahlen, and thus addressed him: "Pahlen, I am informed that there is a conspiracy on foot against me, do you think it necessary to take any precaution?" The count, without betraying the least emotion, replied, "Sire, the information which you have received is correct; and in order to discover the guilty, I have become a member of the conspiracy myself." These words tranquillized the fears of the emperor, and he congratulated himself on the skill and attachment of his servant.

Two days before the execution of the plot, Paul received fresh information that the storm was ready to burst upon him. He now began to suspect the fidelity of Pahlen, and sent a courier to the former governor of Petersburg, who commanded a regiment in the vicinity of the capital, enjoining him to hasten to his defence. "If you delay a moment," said the emperor in his dispatch, "I am lost: Pahlen has betrayed me." But Pahlen caused the courier to be intercepted on his route, and having learnt the contents of the dispatch, hastened the immediate execution of his design.

On the morning of the fatal day, Paul, riding along the Suwarof-square, and accompanied by his favourite Kutusof, was accosted by a man of inferior rank, who presented to him a letter. At the moment of its presentation, the horse of the emperor reared, and the epistle was entrusted to the hands of the favourite; it contained an ample detail of the conspiracy; but Kutusof, having changed his clothes, in order to dine with the emperor, forgot to examine its contents.

At the appointed hour, about 11 o'clock at night, on the 22nd or 23rd of March, 1801, the conspirators, to the number of twenty, and headed by Zuboff, presented themselves at the side gate of the palace of St. Michael. Being refused admission, they declared that they had come to attend the emperor at a council of war. The centinal, deceived by the sight of so many general-officers, yields to their demands, and they enter the gate. Silence reigns every where around, disturbed only by the pacing of the guards, or by the distant murmurs of the Neva; and only a few straggling lights are seen,

irregularly gleaming through the windows of the palace. The conspirators ascend to the apartment of Paul, and remain a moment in the room appropriated to the guards. Argamukoff presents himself alone at the door of the antichamber, exclaiming that there is a fire in the city, and that he comes to wake the emperor. The Kozack, who guarded the antichamber, permits him to enter. He knocks at the door of the inner apartment, and announces his name. The emperor recognizes his voice, and grants him admission. He immediately returns to the conspirators, who were waiting for the signal to follow; they enter; and the Kozack perceives too late that his master is betrayed. He prepares to resist, but at the same moment he falls, pierced with wounds, and uttering the cry of treason!

The emperor, terrified at the sound, springs from his couch, and endeavours to hide himself from view. There were two closets in the apartment: the one communicated with the lower story of the palace; the other, which had no outlet, contained colours and arms. The emperor fled into the latter, and having seized a sword, was endeavouring to gain a secret stair-case by the former, when the conspirators entered. They proceed immediately to his bed, and being unable to find him, exclaim: "He is saved!" Already they begin to believe that they are betrayed, when Benningsen perceives him crouching behind a screen. Having approached to him, they require him to abdicate the throne; but he firmly refuses, and, recognizing those whom he had laden with favours, he heaps upon them such tender reproaches, that their fierceness relents. At this moment, the subtle Pahlen arrives at the palace, with a regiment of guards. If the enterprise succeed, he comes to lend it his sanction; if it fail, he has hastened to the relief of Paul.

The conspirators having recalled their resolution, one of them, whose name was Platon, proceeds to read to the emperor an act of abdication. Paul again appeals to their loyalty and compassion; and addressing himself particularly to Platon, reminds him of his audacity and ingratitude. "Thou art no longer emperor," replies Platon: "Alexander is our master." Enraged at this

reply, the unhappy monarch aims a blow at the traitor; and his courage seems to shake the firmness of his assailants. Benningsen, perceiving this, exclaims: "It is over with us, if he escapes." The conspirators now seize the emperor, throw him on the ground, and practise the most savage barbarities upon his person.—Their cruelty having wearied itself, one of them takes off his sash, turns it twice round the naked neck of the unhappy monarch, and giving one end to Zuboff, himself draws the other, till the object of their attack expires. Thus perished Paul, the sovereign of all the Russias, in the fifth year of his reign. So precarious is the rule of a despot, when, through folly and oppression, he exposes himself to the hatred and contempt of his subjects.

The assassins retired from the palace, without the least molestation, and returned to their respective homes. At seven o'clock on the morning of the 12th, the intelligence of the death of Paul, and the accession of the grand-duke Alexander, were announced to the capital. By eight o'clock, the principal nobility had paid their homage to the new emperor, in the chapel of the winter palace; and the great officers of state being assembled, Alexander was solemnly proclaimed emperor of all the Russias. The new emperor presented himself at the parade on horseback, and was hailed by the troops with loud and cordial acclamations.

ALEXANDER.

BEGAN TO REIGN 1801.—DIED 1825.

CHAP. I.

The first Acts of Alexander's Reign.

ALEXANDER was born December 12th, 1777. His grandmother intended him for her successor, and employed the most proper means to qualify him for the important functions of government. She entrusted the care of his education to La Harpe, a philosopher of liberal principles and amiable manners; while she employed every expedient to support the authority of the teacher, and excite the industry and application of the pupil. In his early years, he discovered those qualities which adorned his subsequent life, and rendered him the delight of his subjects: elevation of sentiment, equability of temper, correctness of judgment, condescension, and benevolence. But with these endearing qualities, he was suspected to be wanting in decision of character, a suspicion which some events of his reign were calculated to confirm.

Alexander ascended the throne in the 24th year of his age. The first act of his reign was a declaration that he would adhere to the system pursued by his grandmother. In opposition to the pride and caprice of his father, he allowed every one to dress according to his own fancy; he freed the inhabitants of the capital from the trouble of alighting from their carriages on the approach of the imperial family; suppressed the secret inquisition that had become the scourge of the country; restored to the senate its former authorities; set at liberty the state prisoners, and recalled from Siberia several of the exiles.

The emperor, at his accession, appeared desirous to cultivate general amity and peace. He ordered the British seamen to be conducted carefully to the ports from which they had been taken, and British ships and merchandize to be restored; he removed all prohibitions against the exportation of grain, and re-estab-

lished peace and friendship with the court of London. On the 17th of June, a convention was signed at Petersburg, between the Russian ministers and Lord St. Helen, conceding the great British question of the right to search neutral ships in time of war, and adjusting all matters in dispute.

On the 19th of June, 1801, Alexander caused a circular letter to be published, in which he shewed his disposition to be on terms of amity with the French republic; and in the course of the same month, a treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation, was signed between Russia and Sweden.

In June, 1802, the emperor appeared for the first time, personally, among the potentates of Europe, and had an interview with the king of Prussia at Memel. During this visit, which was past in gaiety and pleasure, the emperor and king walking on the quay of Memel fell into conversation with the master of an English vessel, and after some time, the king said to the master of the vessel, this is the emperor of Russia. Very much surprised, the mariner assumed a more respectful tone; but when the emperor added, this is the king of Prussia, the son of Neptune turned off, saying, O! your servant, gentlemen, dont think you can dupe me in that way; Mr. Emperor and Mr. King, I wish you a very good morning.

During the short interval of peace that Russia enjoyed, Alexander made several important and beneficial changes in the internal administration of his empire. He wrote a letter to the chamberlain Wittostoff, president of the commission for ameliorating the condition of the poor of Petersburg, in which he recommended the commission to follow the example of a similar establishment at Hamburg, in selecting proper objects for their charitable bequests, preferring the humble and industrious pauper, to the idle and sturdy beggar. He also offered considerable premiums to any person who should introduce improvements into agriculture, or who should bring to perfection any old invention, open any new branch of commerce, establish any new manufacture, or contrive any machine or process that might be useful in the arts.

Early in the year 1803, the emperor fitted out at his own expense, two vessels for a voyage of discovery round the world, under the command of Captain Krucenstern. These ships were provided with every necessary for accomplishing the object of the voyage; and several men of eminence for science and literature, volunteered their services on this occasion. The vessels sailed in the latter end of 1803, and about a year after, intelligence was received of their lying at Kamtschatka. They had touched at the Marquesas islands, where they had found a Frenchman and an Englishman, who had been left there several years before. The Englishman had completely forgotten his native language, and the Frenchman, who had for several years spoken nothing but the language of the natives, scarcely retained sufficient French to inform Mr. Krucenstern that he had made part of the crew of an American vessel, which was wrecked on those coasts.

In the beginning of 1804, the emperor established a university at Kharkof, in Lithuania, for the cultivation and diffusion of the arts and sciences in that part of the Russian empire, and Mr. Campbell, a Scotch gentleman, was employed to procure masters for this new institution. Some time after, the emperor ordered that meteorological observations should be regularly made at all the universities and public schools, and the results published. It appears that at the end of this year, the expense of these institutions amounted to 2,149,213 rubles, besides a gift of nearly 60,000 rubles towards erecting the new university.

About this time, an imperial ukase was published, granting to the Jews a complete emancipation from the shackles under which they had long groaned, and allowing them the privilege of educating their children in any of the schools and universities of the empire, or of establishing schools at their own expense.

CHAP. II.

Treaty of Russia with England, Sweden, and Austria—Battle of Austerlitz, Eylau, and Friedland.

FOR some time, the genius of discord, which had again actuated the minds of the European sovereigns, failed to extend her baleful influence over the Russian empire. The emperor seems wisely to have thought that his distance from the scene of action, might well excuse him from any active interference with the belligerent states. He contented himself, therefore, in 1803, with offering to interpose his good offices in restoring the newly-ruptured peace between England and France. The arrest and murder of the Duc D'Enghien, however, roused him to make a strong remonstrance the following year, against this shameful violation of the neutral territory of Baden; and he appealed, from the frivolous excuses of the French government on that subject, to the diet of Ratisbon. But the influence of France was at this time paramount in Germany.

On the 11th of April, 1805, Russia came forth decidedly into the first of her great struggles with France, and signed a treaty with England, Sweden, and Austria, to use the most efficient means for resisting the encroachments of the French government, and securing the independence of the different states.

For the protection of the great objects of this treaty, it was proposed by the first article, that an army of 500,000 men should be levied; but in a subsequent separate article, the contracting parties agreed that the treaty should be carried into execution, as soon as it should be possible to oppose to France an active force of 400,000 men. It was understood and stipulated, that these troops should be provided by the powers of the continent who should become parties to the league, and that subsidies should be granted by Great Britain in the proportion of £1,250,000 sterling, for every 100,000 men, besides a considerable additional sum for the expense incurred in bringing them into the field.

In this short war, which the Austrians began prema-

turely, conducted without skill, and terminated with the loss of many of their fairest provinces, the emperor of Russia conducted himself with promptitude and firmness. Three armies, whose preparations he superintended himself, he dispatched successively to the aid of the Austrians. While the court of Berlin, complained of the violation of their territories by the French armies, he appeared in that city; and gaining all hearts by the amenity of his manners, he seemed to infuse animation and vigour into the irresolute councils of Prusssia. The Austrian armies having been entirely vanquished in Suabia, and the first of his own armies compelled to retreat from the Inn, he quickly repaired to the field of contest, to encourage his troops by his presence and example.

The emperor joined his army a few days before the battle of Austerlitz, which was fought December the 2nd, 1805. In this contest, so fatal to the hopes of the combined powers, the two armies were very nearly of the same strength, each amounting to between 70,000 and 80,000 men. Napoleon was his own general-in-chief; the Russians were commanded by general Kutusof; and the Austrians by prince John of Lichtenstein. The battle commenced early in the morning, the sun arising with unclouded brilliancy,—that sun of Austerlitz which Napoleon upon so many succeeding occasions apostrophised, and recalled to the mind of his soldiers. As its first beams arose above the horizon, the French emperor appeared in front of his army, surrounded by his marshals, to whom he issued his last directions, and they departed at full gallop to their respective posts.

A column, detached from the left of the Austro-Russian army, commenced the attack with distinguished valour; but it was unable to withstand the impetuosity of the French troops, and the manœuvres of their general. The left wing of the allies was broken, and the imperial Russian guard, in endeavouring to re-establish the communication, was entirely crushed. The centre experienced the same fate, and the contest terminated with the retreat of the allies in good order, but with the loss of many prisoners, and the greatest part of their

artillery and baggage. On this memorable day, the gallantry of Alexander was conspicuous. It is said, that when victory had declared for the enemy, he thrice at the head of his guards charged the assailants, and not only covered the retreat of the allied army, which would otherwise have been entirely destroyed, but rescued the greatest part of the Russian artillery which had fallen into the hands of the victors.

The Austrian emperor considered his last hope of successful opposition to Buonaparte as extinguished by this defeat, and conceived, therefore, that he had nothing left but to throw himself upon the discretion of the victor. Having satisfied himself, by a personal interview with Napoleon, that he should be admitted to terms of greater or less severity, he next stipulated for that which Alexander had disdained to request in his own person, the unmolested retreat of the Russians to their own country.

"The Russian army is surrounded," said Buonaparte, "not a man can escape me. But I wish to oblige their emperor, and will stop the march of my columns, if your majesty promises me that these Russians shall evacuate Germany, and the Austrian and Prussian parts of Poland." "It is the purpose of the emperor Alexander to do so," was the reply.

The arrangement was communicated by Savary to the Russian emperor, and he commenced his march towards Russia in pursuance of the stipulated terms. The Russian army had been unfortunate; but the behaviour of their youthful emperor, and the marked deference shown towards him by Buonaparte, made a most favourable impression upon Europe at large.

Though the object of the coalition was thus entirely frustrated, an amicable connexion still subsisted between the courts of London and Petersburg; and when Mr. Fox, in 1806, opened a correspondence with the French government, with a view to adjust the differences between England and France, he insisted on the necessity of admitting Russia as a party to the negociation. M. D'Oubril was in consequence dispatched by the emperor with full powers to conclude a peace. But this minister having precipitately signed a separate treaty

with France, Alexander refused to ratify it. The negociations were broken off, and the relations of England and Russia remained undisturbed.

The French, at the close of this year, having completely humbled Prussia, advanced into Poland. The Russian general Benningsen had on his side pressed forward to the relief of the Prussians, and had occupied Warsaw; but when he was informed of the advance of the French, he abandoned that city, and re-crossed the Vistula. The capital of Poland, thus evacuated, was entered on the 28th of November, by Murat at the head of the French van-guard.

The French army, at length, advanced in full force, and crossed successively the rivers Vistula and Bog, forcing a passage wherever it was disputed. But it was not the object of Benningsen to give battle to forces superior to his own; he therefore retreated behind the Wkra, and was joined by the large bodies of troops commanded by generals Buxhowden and Kaminskoy: the latter took the general command.

On the 23rd of December, Napoleon arrived in person upon the Wkra, and ordered the advance of his army in three divisions. Kaminskoy, when he saw the passage of this river lined, determined to retreat behind the Niemen, and send order to his lieutenants accordingly. Benningsen therefore fell back upon Pultusk, where he was attacked by the French on the 26th of December. Davoust with 10,000 men fell upon the left wing of the Russians; at the same time the attack on their right was extremely impetuous, and conducted by Napoleon in person. The conflict was very obstinate, and continued till night. Both sides laid claim to the victory, but neither gained ground. The French retreated after night-fall with such rapidity, that on the next day, the Kozacks could not find a rear-guard in the vicinity of Pultusk.

The distresses of the Russian army were soon after so extreme, that Benningsen, who had been appointed commander-in-chief, determined to give battle at all risks. For this purpose he proceeded to concentrate his forces at Eylau, which was pitched on as the field on which he proposed to await Buonaparte.

On reaching Eylau, the Russian commander sent general Marcoff to take possession of the town. They found the French already in possession, and although they dislodged them, were themselves driven out in turn by another division of the French, to whom Buonaparte had promised the plunder of the town. A third division of Russians was now ordered to advance, which, marching in three columns, bore down all opposition and retook Eylau by assault; but the French returning under cover of the hillocks and broken ground which skirt the village, again dislodged the Russians, and took final possession of the town. Night fell, and the combat ceased, to be renewed with treble fury on the next day.

The space betwixt the hostile armies was open and flat, and intersected with frozen lakes, so that they might trace each other's position by the pale glimmer of the watch-lights upon the snow. The difference of numerical forces was considerably to the advantage of the French; but the disproportion has been considerably overrated.

On the following day the action was renewed, and became general. The attacks of the French, under the immediate eye and direction of the emperor, were incessant and impetuous, but repulsed by the Russians with invincible bravery. About mid-day, a heavy storm of snow began to fall, which the wind drove right in the face of the Russians, and which increased the obscurity caused by the smoke of the burning village Serpullen that rolled along the line. Under cover of snow and smoke, the French advanced with artillery and cavalry, and were close on the Russian position ere they were perceived. But notwithstanding this advantage, they were driven back to their own position, where they rallied with difficulty.

At the moment when victory appeared to declare for the Russians, it was on the point of being wrested from them. By a skilful manœuvre of Davoust, their left wing, and a part of their centre, were thrown into disorder, and forced to retire and change their front.

At this important juncture of the contest, the Prussian general l'Estocq appeared on the field, redeemed

the ground which the Russians had lost, and drove back in their turn the victorious army of the French.

Ney, in the meanwhile appeared in the field, and occupied a village on the road to Konigsberg. As this endangered the communication of the Russians with that town, Benningsen ordered it to be carried by storm, and his order was successfully executed. This was the last act of that bloody day. It was ten o'clock, and the combat was ended.

Fifty thousand men perished in this dreadful battle. The contest was maintained for twelve hours; and when the combatants separated from each other, it was impossible to determine on which side lay the victory, so nearly were the losses and advantages balanced, and so much did the patient and obstinate courage of the Russians avail against the superior number, science, and discipline of the French. When the carnage ceased, the former remained masters of the field of battle; but in the morning, they began to retreat, and left the latter to take possession of Eylau.

On the 16th of February, 1807, Napoleon evacuated Eylau, and retreated up on the Vistula, instead of driving the Russians, as he had threatened, behind the Pregel. Various actions took place during his retreat, with different fortunes; but none of them of sufficient importance to be entitled to particular mention.

In the month of April, a division of the French army commenced the siege of Dantzic; and, on the 28th of May, the city surrendered by capitulation, after the garrison had been reduced from 16,000 to 9,000 men. This capture was styled by the French the first fruits of their victory in Eylau, so decidedly claimed by general Benningsen; and it must be confessed that the surrender of so important a city and fortress, in the very face of the Russian army, was an unfavourable omen.

This was a most eventful crisis in the affairs of the north of Europe, and the grand armies felt it as such; for they laboured incessantly to strengthen their positions, and increase their numbers. The French emperor, in order to concentrate his force, withdrew his troops from before Stralsund, and ordered all those that

could be spared from the garrisons of Prussia, to march towards the Vistula. At the same time, numerous bodies of troops were moving from Russia towards the seat of war, In the month of May, the King of Sweden arrived at Stralsund; and the emperor of Russia quitted Petersburg to repair to his army. Thus every thing announced a momentous crisis.

The fatal day at length arrived which was to decide the mighty contest. That day was the 14th of June, the anniversary of the battle of Marengo. Having put his soldiers in mind of this circumstance, the emperor Napoleon prepared for an attack on the Russian position at Friedland. This town, which is situate on the west side of the Aller, communicates with the eastern, or right bank of the river, by a long wooden bridge. It was the object of Buonaparte to induce the Russian general to pass this narrow bridge to the left bank, and then to ensnare him into a general action, in a position, where the difficulty of defiling through the town, and over the bridge, must render retreat almost impossible. For this purpose, he shewed such a small proportion of his forces on the left side of the river, as induced Benningsen to believe that they consisted only of Oudinot's division, which had suffered severely in a recent contest, and which he now hoped altogether to destroy. Under this deception, the Russian general ordered a division of his army to pass the bridge, defile through the town, and march to the assault. The French took care to offer no such resistance as should intimate their real strength. Benningsen was thus led to reinforce this division with another: the battle thickened, and the Russian general at length transported all his army, one division excepted, to the left bank of the Aller, and drew them up in part of the town. But no sooner had he taken this irretrievable step, than he perceived his mistake, and found himself in the presence of the grand French army. To retreat was dangerous; to advance was prevented by the inequality of his force.

The French advanced to the attack about ten o'clock; but about noon, after much hard fighting, they seemed weary of the contest, and about to retire. This however, was only a feint, to repose such of their forces as

had been engaged, and to bring up reinforcements. A little before five o'clock, Buonaparte brought up his full army in person, and made a simultaneous attack upon the whole Russian line, with cavalry, infantry, and artillery, the French advancing with shouts of assured victory; while the Russians, weakened by the loss of at least 12,000 killed and wounded, were obliged to attempt a retreat, which, with great difficulty, they effected.

On the following day, the retreat of the Russians towards Koningsberg was cut off; but on the 16th, at day-break, they destroyed the bridges over the Pregel, and having burnt, or thrown into the water, the stores accumulated in their magazines on the Aller, they continued their retrograde movement. At eight o'clock, the same morning, the French emperor ordered a bridge to be thrown over the Pregel, and continued the pursuit. The Russians, in their retreat, destroyed all the magazines which they had in the villages. But a division of the French army, under Soult, took possession of Koningsberg, where they found 20,000 wounded Russians, several 100,000 quintals of grain, and a vast quantity of warlike stores, with 160,000 muskets, sent from England for the service of the Russian army.

The battle of Friedland was not less decisive than that of Austerlitz, nor its consequences less hostile to the independence of Europe. Without confiding either in the French or Russian accounts, we have, nearer home, an impartial witness, who possessed ample means of information. Lord Hutchinson declared in the British senate, that the Russians crossed the Niemen with a loss of 40,000 men, having, in the space of eleven days, lost no less than twenty-seven generals, and 1,848 officers killed or wounded.

This sanguinary action was followed by an armistice and an interview betwixt the two emperors. It took place upon a raft prepared for the purpose, and moored in the midst of the Niemen, which bore an immense tent or pavilion. At half-past nine, 25th June, 1807, Alexander and Napoleon, in the presence of numerous admiring spectators, embarked at the same moment from

the opposite banks of the river. They were attended by their principal generals; and arriving at the raft, they embraced, amidst the shouts and acclamations of both armies. They then entered the pavilion which had been prepared, and held a private conference of two hours.

The town of Tilsit was now declared neutral; and feasts and entertainments succeeded to the horrors of war. The French and Russian, nay, even the Prussian officers, seemed so delighted with each others' society, that it was difficult to conceive that men, so mutually agreeable, had been for months drenching trampled snows and muddy wastes with each other's blood. The two emperors appeared like comrades in sport and frolic; but they are well known to have had private interviews, where the gay yielded to the grave, and the most important measures were discussed.

In consenting to the treaty of Tilsit, concluded July 7th, the Russian monarch exposed himself to great censure, as it seemed a dereliction of his engagements with England, for the purpose of restoring the balance of power among the European states. The principal articles of the treaty were, that a part of the Prussian dominions especially on the eastern side of the Elbe, should be annexed to the new kingdom of Westphalia. Prussian Poland was ceded to the king of Saxony, under the title of the duchy of Warsaw. The city of Dantzic, with a surrounding territory of two leagues, was restored to independence. Russia acknowledged the brothers of Buonaparte as kings respectively of Naples, Holland, and Westphalia, and formally recognized the confederation of the Rhine. Hostilities were instantly to cease between Russia and the Ottoman Porte; and Alexander agreed to accept the mediation of the emperor of France for the conclusion of a peace between the two powers.

The French emperor also agreed to accept the mediation of the emperor of Russia, in order to negociate and conclude a treaty with Great Britain, under the condition, however, that this mediation should be accepted by England within a month after the conclusion of the treaty of Tilsit. By other articles,

of a secret nature, the ports of Prussia, as well as Dantzic, were to be shut against the vessels and trade of Great Britain: and in case of England's rejecting the proposed mediation, those of Russia were to be subject to the same law of exclusion. Corfu also, and the Seven Islands were to be ceded as an appendage to France. Such were the first fruits of Alexander's friendship with Napoleon.

In spite of every precaution which could be adopted, the British ambassador, Lord Gower, obtained possession of the secret article which France and Russia deemed it so important to conceal; and was able to transmit to his government an exact account, of this article, and particularly of the two emperors' having resolved to employ the Danish fleet in the destruction of the maritime rights of Britain.

In consequence of this information, the British cabinet was induced to seize the Danish ships of the line then lying at Copenhagen, a measure which Russia thought proper to resent, by declaring war against England. All British ships and property were detained, and the fort of Cronstadt put into a state of defence. Hostilities between England and Russia, however, were never carried much further than a cessation of commercial intercourse.

A second meeting between Alexander and the emperor of France took place at Erfurt, on the 27th of September, 1808, with the design, on the part of the latter, of enabling himself, with safety, to withdraw his troops from Germany; for that spirit of resistance to his authority was now commencing in the Spanish peninsula, which ended in the emancipation of enslaved Europe. Kings, princes, and other personages of rank crowded to pay homage to the French ruler. Great pomp of ceremony and splendour of entertainment distinguished this imperial convention. In one of their rides, which Napoleon and Alexander took after their morning conferences, it was proposed by the former, and acceded to by the latter, to visit the field of Jena. Whether insolence on the one hand, or meanness on the other predominated, is not easy to determine. Buonaparte flattered the grand-duke

Constantine, with the hope of reigning on the ruins of the Ottoman empire; he dexterously contrived a negociation, by which, under pretence of favouring their Russian and Prussian majesties, he agreed to evacuate the Prussian territories, as soon as the contributions, reduced two-thirds, should be paid; and persuaded Alexander that the Spanish insurrections were the natural consequence of the treaty of Tilsit.

During the memorable conference at Erfurt, the two emperors joined in a letter to the King of Great Britain proposing a general peace; and it was intimated that as a basis they would leave all the contracting powers in possession of what they had gained during the war. The proposal, as must have been foreseen, failed of success, as Britain demanded that the Spanish government and the king of Sweden should be admitted as parties to the treaty.

But the letter of the emperor had served the purpose of Buonaparte. It proved that the bonds which united France and Russia were of the most intimate nature, and left him at liberty to employ his whole military force in the subjugation of Spain.

On the 10th of February, 1809, Alexander published a declaration at Petersburg, in which he intimated to the Swedish monarch, that he was making preparations to invade his territories; but that he was ready to put a stop to them, if Sweden would join Russia and Denmark in shutting the Baltic against Great Britain, until the conclusion of a maritime peace. But Gustavus determined to adhere to the system which he had for some time pursued, and to accede to the terms of the convention which had just been concluded between him and the king of Great Britain. In consequence of this determination, a Russian army entered Finland in the beginning of March, and advanced against Helsingfors, which was occupied by a single battalion of a Swedish regiment. This small force retired into the fortress of Swenborg, where they maintained themselves with great bravery till the 17th of April, when they were obliged to capitulate.

On the 27th of April, some slight advantage was gained over the Russians, near Rivolax, by the

Swedish army under general Klinspor; but this was only a partial gleam of success. The Russians soon overran almost all Finland, took possession of Wasa, and reduced under subjection the whole province of which that town is the capital. The army of Klinspor, which originally consisted of 16,000 regular troops, exclusive of boors, was, by the end of this campaign, reduced to little more than 9,000 men.

The king of Sweden continued to send reinforcements to his armies in Finland, but their operations were still unsuccessful; and on the 27th of September an armistice was concluded which consigned the greatest part of the province to the possession of Russia.

While Swedish Finland submitted to his authority, Alexander raised his army on the Danube to 80,000 men, in order to push his conquests in that quarter.

This impolitic war raged during 1809, and the following year, with no other consequence than the destruction of human lives. In 1811, the Turks, who were determined not to submit to the terms of peace proposed by the Russians, made great exertions to recruit their armies. The early part of the campaign was unfavourable to the Russians; but when the confidence of the vizier induced him to convey the greatest part of his army to the left bank of the Danube, Kutusof dispatched 8,000 men across the river to attack the Turkish camp. The enemy was surprised, and his camp taken. In consequence of this and other advantages, the vizier proposed to renew the negociation; but the war proceeding, his army surrendered December the 8th, after losing 10,000 men. On the 14th of Aug. 1812, a peace was concluded between the contending powers, which constituted the Pruth, from its entrance into Moldavia, to its junction with the Danube; and this river to the Euxine, the boundaries of the two empires.

CHAP. III.

Napoleon's Invasion of Russia.

THE support of the continental system, contrived for the purpose of annihilating the commerce of Great Britain, was the favourite object of the ruler of France. To this system the emperor Alexander had given his consent, and had acted upon it; but in Russia, it had created greater dissatisfaction and loss than in any other part of Europe. The Russian nobles derived all their income from the sale of the gross produce of their estates, hemp, flax, tallow, &c. For these articles Great Britain was their best customer, and the commercial regulations of Buonaparte of course pressed heavily on them. This circumstance opened the eyes of Alexander to the consequences of ministering to the ambition of his domineering ally, and induced him to relax the prohibitory system in favour of his subjects. Finland, moreover, having been ceded to Russia, in 1809, the tzar refused the demand of France for its restoration, and complained of Napoleon's arbitary interference in the politics of the north. The differences which subsisted on these subjects, it appeared early in 1812, must be terminated by a terrible conflict.

In the spring of this year, the emperor of France began to move numerous bodies of troops into the interior of Germany, which being joined by the contingents of the Rhenish confederation, were marched to the Russian frontier. He concluded treaties of offensive alliance with Austria and Prussia, seized Pomerania, in order to influence the councils of Sweden, and made every preparation for a contest which was to decide the fate of Europe.

The Russian monarch, in the mean while, determined to meet the impending storm. He concluded, as we have already related, a treaty with the Ottoman Porte, to which he restored the conquests recently made in Moldavia, and Wallachia, thus enabling him to withdraw his armies from the banks of the Danube. To excite the courage of his subjects, he published a declaration, which after stating his earnest desire and repeated

efforts to prevent a rupture, concludes as follows. "The hope of peace, without a contest, is gone. We have no other resource than to oppose our brave soldiers to the invader, and to invoke the Supreme Judge to bless the righteous cause. We have no occasion to remind our generals, officers, or troops, of their duty or honour. The blood of the Slavonians, so illustrious by their virtues and conquests, flows in their veins. Soldiers! you defend your faith, your country, and your liberty. Your Emperor marches at your head, and the God of justice is against the avenger.

Alexander."

After issuing this declaration, he put his armies in motion, and by an imperial ukase, dated the 23rd of March, 1812, ordered a levy of two men in five hundred throughout his extensive dominions. All matters of dispute were also settled between Russia and Great Britain.

On the 8th of May, the French emperor, accompanied by his consort Maria Louisa, set out from Paris. On the 11th of that month, they arrived at Mentz, and on the 13th proceeded to Wurtzburg, where they were received by the king of Wirtemburg and the grand-duke of Baden. On the 15th, they arrived at Freyberg, where they were met by the king and queen of Saxony, and received with the highest honours. Thence they proceeded to Dresden, where they were met by their imperial majesties the emperor and empress of Austria.

On the 29th of May, the two emperors departed from Dresden; Napoleon proceeded toward the Vistula, to take the command of the army, while Francis returned to Vienna. The king of Prussia, who had attended at the interview, left that city on the following day: the empress of France, after remaining a few days at Dresden, returned to Paris. On the 6th of June, Napoleon passed the Vistula, when he published a declaration, announcing his determination to restore the kingdom of Poland, and place the duke of Wurtzburg on the throne; at the same time inviting all the Poles to rally round his standard.

On the 22nd of June, the emperor of France issued the following proclamation to his army: "Russia is

dragged along by a fatality: her destinies must be accomplished. Should she consider us as degenerated? Are we no longer to be regarded as the soldiers of Austerlitz? She offers us the alternative of dishonour or war. The choice cannot admit of hesitation. Let us then march forward! Let us pass the Niemen! Let us carry the war into her territory! The second war of Poland will be as glorious to the French arms as the first." Such was the tone of boast and confidence in which Napoleon addressed his soldiers. But let not him that girdeth on his armour, boast as he that putteth it off. Pride, says the wisest of men, cometh before destruction, and a haughty spirit before a fall. Buonaparte had now attained to the meridian of his glory: a series of the most splendid successes had induced him to imagine that victory was inseparably attached to his banners, and that fortune could never frown where she had so long been accustomed to smile. But he was to be taught his mistake, by a succession of the most terrible reverses and defeats that ever befel any of the conquerors of the earth.

The sovereigns of France and Russia, who addressed their troops, each in his own peculiar mode of exhortation, had their different plans for the campaign. It was the primary object of Buonaparte to accumulate an overwhelming force on the centre of the Russian line, to break it asunder, and cut off as many divisions as activity could surprize and overmaster in such a struggle. It was the plan of Alexander, on the contrary, to avoid every thing approaching to a general action, and to retire before the invaders, until bad roads, deficient provisions, toilsome marches, diseases, and loss in skirmishes, should deprive them of all their original advantages of numbers, spirits, and discipline. In pursuance of this plan, the Russian army, which, besides having corps near Riga and Loutsk, extended from Telch to Bailistock, began to retreat after a march of eleven days, and encamped on the banks of the Duna. In this retreat, the Russians, who sustained but trifling loss, received the first assistance from their auxiliary, the cold, which destroyed several thousand horses of the French, and retarded their march.

On the 23rd of June, the grand French army was put in motion. At two o'clock in the morning, the emperor Napoleon, accompanied by a general of engineers, inspected the banks of the Niemen; and on the same day, Murat, who commanded the cavalry, advanced within six miles of that river. The different corps commanded by the viceroy of Italy, the prince of Echmuhl, the duke d'Elchingen, the duke de Reggio, the duke of Tarentum, and prince Poniatowski, made correspondent movements; and the pontoon train also arrived within six miles of the Niemen. The 5th, 6th, and 8th corps, commanded by the king of Westphalia, had proceeded no farther than Novgorod; and the first Austrian corps under Schwartzenburg was near Lublin, at about an equal distance between Lemburg and Warsaw. The duke of Belluno, with the ninth corps and some other troops, remained a reserve, occupying the country between the Elbe and the Oder.

On the other hand, the grand Russian army, commanded by the emperor in person, advanced its head quarters as far as Wilna. It amounted to 120,000 men. On the north, this grand army communicated with a division of 10,000 men, under count Essen; on the south with the army under prince Bagration, which including 12,000 Kozacks, consisted of about 90,000 troops; and on the extreme left, with the army of Volhynia, which was commanded by Kormazoff, and is said to have amounted to 20,000 men. Two armies of reserve were also on the course of being formed at Novgorod and Smolensk. These might amount to about 20,000 men each.

Thus, on the whole, the Russians commenced the campaign with about 260,000 men opposed to 470,000; but during the progress of the war, Russia raised reinforcements, which outweighed the balance which was against her at the commencement.

When the head of Napoleon's columns reached the banks of the Niemen, he advanced in person to reconnoitre the banks, when his horse stumbled and threw him. "A bad omen," said a voice, but whether that of the emperor, or one of his suite, could not be distinguished; "a Roman would return."

Soon after the French had crossed the Niemen, the plan of the Russians became apparent. They most carefully and systematically avoided a general engagement. Often the two armies were so near to each other that Buonaparte thought that the enemy meant to fight, and felt as an eagle that is about to pounce upon his prey; but no sooner were his preparations made for the contest, than the enemy had disappeared. This course fretted Buonaparte's temper, and he was still more irritated, when he found the villages and towns deserted, and the country, through which he had to advance, laid waste. He had, indeed, collected and brought with him immense quantities of stores and provisions, and he had ordered fresh supplies to follow; but it is evident, that an army of half a million of men, could not be supported by what it brought with it, or by what came from a distance: besides, in proportion as he advanced, his difficulties in this respect would necessarily increase. The soldiers, at the very commencement of the campaign, were compelled to lay contributions on the country; which, while they were in Poland, the immense fertility of the soil enabled it to supply. But matters became greatly worse after entering Lithuania, which the Russians had previously endeavoured to strip of all that could benefit the French.

Buonaparte pushed on to Wilna, with even more than his usual promptitude. This occasioned an event which displayed, at the same time, the reckless impatience of his character, and the devoted attachment of his soldiers. The river Wilna being swollen with rain, and the bridges destroyed, the emperor commanded a body of Polish cavalry to pass by swimming. Without hesitation, these brave men dashed into the river. But ere they reached the middle of the stream, they were swept down by the force of the torrent, and perished, almost to a man, before the eyes of Napoleon, to whom some of them, in the last struggle, turned their faces, exclaiming, *Vive l'Empereur!* The spectators were struck with horror.

Napoleon entered Wilna, the capital of Russian Poland, on the 28th of June. He hoped that the

possession of this city would be contested; but the Russians, true to their system, left it undefended. He also expected that the Lithuanians, as a nation, would eagerly join him, in order to free themselves from the Russian yoke; but only a few thousands entered his army. They were alienated and disgusted by the behaviour of the French soldiery, who, notwithstanding the orders of the emperor, pursued their system of pillage; while they remembered that the Russians had governed them kindly, and with considerable respect to their own habits and customs.

Already the French had begun to suffer dreadfully. The duke of Treviso informed Buonaparte "that he had seen from the Niemen to the Wilna, nothing but devastated houses, and baggage and provision waggons abandoned, so that he should have imagined himself following a defeated army. Ten thousand horses had been killed by the cold rains of the great storm, and by the green corn which had become their usual food. Their carcasses were encumbering the road, and sent forth a mephitic smell impossible to breathe. It was a new scourge, which some compared to famine, but much more terrible: several conscripts had already perished of hunger."

But these were not the only evils. A division of the French army, under Macdonald, received a severe check from general Essen, to whom the defence of Riga was entrusted. Count Wiggenstein also defeated marshal Oudinot, and the Bavarian general Wrede, at Polotsk, after a conflict of twelve hours, in which the enemy lost 10,000 men in killed and wounded: thus were the French foiled in their attempts to open a passage to Petersburg.

Napoleon occupied his head quarters at Wilna, from 28th June to 16th of July, the space of eighteen days. It must not be supposed, however, that these eighteen days passed without military movements of high importance. He dispatched the greater part of his cavalry, under Murat, to press on the retreat of the grand Russian army; the second corps, under Oudinot, and the third, under Ney, were hurried to the Dwina, on the same service; while the king of

Westphalia had directions to press upon Bagration* in front, and throw him upon the army of Davoust, which was to advance on his flank and towards his rear.

The grand Russian army, commanded by the emperor, and more immediately by Barclay de Tolly, though thus pressed by Murat, Oudinot, and Ney, made a successful retreat to the entrenched camp at Drissa, where the Russian army had been appointed to concentrate itself. The French troops, on their part, approached the left bank of the Dwina, and there were fought only some partial actions between detached corps, with various success. But the Russian general, Wiggenstein, passed the river on the night of the 2nd of July, and defeated the van-guard of the French cavalry, which had quartered themselves in the town of Drissa. Enterprises like these convinced Napoleon that he had no ordinary enemy to combat, and that, in order to be successful, he must employ his own talents in the campaign.

Bagration, who had received orders from the emperor to move on the camp of Drissa, defended himself with great valour against the attacks of Jerome's advanced guard; but Davoust having seized all the posts on the Russian's right flank, and prevented his taking the shortest road to the camp, began next to cut off his retreat by a more circuitous route to the east. It was supposed by the French that if the king of Westphalia had pressed forward on the Russians, he would have driven them back on Davoust, and have effected their total destruction. However this may have been, Jerome was sent home in disgrace to his Westphalian dominions, unaccompanied even by a soldier of his guards.

In the mean while, Bagration marched to the south, and skilfully eluding his pursuers, effected the passage of the Beresina at Bobruisk. He next ascended the Dnieper as far as Mohiloff, where he again found himself anticipated by Davoust; but determined to clear his way by the sword. He was repulsed in the attempt, and lost the battle; without, however, suffering much,

* Bagration had taken up his head-quarters at Wolkowitch, which placed him so much in advance, as greatly to endanger his being cut off from the main army, and completely destroyed.

except in the failure of his purpose. Undismayed by obstacles, he once more altered his line of retreat, descended the Dnieper, and crossing the river at Nevoi-Bikoff, gained the interior of Russia.

In the mean time, Barclay de Tolly, fearing that the French army would cross the Dwina at Vitepsk, a great deal higher up than Drissa, turn his left flank, deprive him of all communication with Bagration, evacuated the camp, and ascended the right side of the river, toward Vitepsk.

When the army had arrived at Polotsk, the emperor Alexander left the troops, and hastened to Moscow, where he issued two addresses, one to the inhabitants of Moscow, and another to the nation at large, exposing the designs of the invader, inflaming their zeal in defence of their country, and calling upon them to arm for the destruction of the foe. The whole nation seemed to rouse at the voice of its sovereign. Multitudes volunteered their services, others contributed large sums of money and diamonds, and many of the nobles raised, clothed, and mounted whole regiments at their own expense. The inhabitants of the government of Moscow alone, engaged to furnish 100,000 men, armed, clothed and disciplined, as far as time would allow. Other governments sent forth their armed multitudes with equal alacrity, the regular levies meanwhile proceeding. An appeal to the nation from the holy synod appeared, in which the atrocities of Buonaparte were exhibited; and the Russians were urged to rise against him as a tyrant, who under the guise of friendship, entered countries with fire, sword, famine, pestilence, and death, in his train. An enthusiastic ardour was kindled in the minds of the people, equal to the most heroic deeds, and the sublimest sacrifices. Nothing was too dear for them to offer on the altar of their country and their religion.

Barclay de Tolly continued his route to Vitepsk, having sent orders to Bagration to descend the Dnieper as far as Orcsa, which is about forty miles distant from that town.

Buonaparte endeavoured to anticipate the Russians in the possession of Vitepsk, but not having been able

to accomplish this, he determined to force them from that position. The Russians, on their part, seemed equally resolved to defend the long defiles near this town. A partial but obstinate engagement took place between the troops commanded by Murat and the Viceroy of Italy, and the Russians under Barclay. The last mentioned general, having heard nothing of Bagration, formed on the 14th of July, the almost desperate resolution of risking a general action with the superior forces under Napoleon; but just as he had made his arrangements for battle, he received intelligence that Bagration was directing his retreat upon Smolensk. Renouncing instantly his purpose of battle, Barclay commenced his retreat upon the same point, and was joined by Bagration within two days after.

Barclay retreated just as Buonaparte himself came up. He had formed his plan of battle, and so confident was he that it would take place, and ensure him the victory, that his words to Murat were, "To morrow at five o'clock the sun of Austerlitz." On the morrow, however, the Russians had wholly disappeared, and the French entered Vitepsk.

Buonaparte's generals ventured to suggest a hope that he would close at Vitepsk the campaign of the season, and, quartering his troops on the Dwina, await supplies. But this suggestion he treated with contempt, asking those who offered it, whether he had come so far only to conquer a wretched set of huts. Goaded by ambition, and determined to advance, Napoleon hastened to his maps; they presented to his view the cities of Moscow and Smolensk,—the great Moscow, the holy city—names which he repeated with satisfaction, and which seemed to add fuel to his ambitious flame. He communicated his designs and his plans to his generals, but they exhibited their disapprobation, either by their countenances or their language. He was, however, immoveable; nor did the information he received of peace between Russia and Turkey, alter his resolution.

Meanwhile, the Russians having united the two wings of their army, to the number of 120,000, determined to venture on offensive operations. Barclay directed

the march of a great part of his army upon Rudneia, a place about half-way between Vitepsk and Smolensk, and the centre of the French line of position; hoping, that by this sudden movement, he should surprise Napoleon ere his army could be concentrated. But after four days, spent in marches and counter-marches, he was compelled to make a speedy retreat towards Smolensk, in order to defeat one of those *ruses de guerre*, in the practice of which the French emperor so greatly excelled.

Buonaparte, on a sudden, withdrew his forces from Vitepsk, and, by throwing four bridges over the Dnieper, effected a passage for Ney, the viceroy, Murat, and Davoust; while Poniatowski, with Junot, advanced by different routes to support the manœuvre. Ney and Murat pressed forward with all their accustomed ardour until they approached Krasnoi, where, on the 14th of August, they attacked the Russian general Newerowskoi, and compelled him, with the loss of about 400 men, to retire into Smolensk.

Upon the same day, the 14th of August, Napoleon arrived at Rasassina, upon the Dnieper, and pushed forward to Smolensk, in the rear of Murat and Ney Ney had expected to capture the city by a *coup-de-main;* but Bagration, having thrown in succours to its relief, he was obliged to fall back on a woody height, bordering on the Dnieper. Thence, he was surveying the city and its environs, when he imagined that he could discover troops in motion, on the opposite side of the river. He ran to fetch the emperor, and conducted him through coppices and dingles, to avoid the fire of the place. Napoleon, on reaching the height, beheld a cloud of dust enveloping long black columns, glistening with a multitude of arms; these masses approached so rapidly, that they seemed to run. It was Barclay and Bagration, who, with nearly 120,000 men, and breathless with haste and anxiety, were pressing forward to the relief of Smolensk.

Transported with joy at this sight, Napoleon clapped his hands, exclaiming, "at last I have them!" There could be no doubt of it; this surprising army was hastening to pass through the city, and deploying from its

gates, to offer him that battle which he had so long and so ardently desired. But he mistook the character of Barclay de Tolly. This active general, who had determined not to endanger the loss of his army, dismissed his more impatient coadjutor, Bagration, to the defence of Ellnia, while he himself occupied Smolensk, only to cover the flight of its inhabitants, and carry off or destroy its magazines.

On the 17th of August, Napoleon awoke early in the morning, expecting to see the Russian army drawn up before him; but the field was empty, and the enemy had fled. He still however persisted in his hope of a battle, till he learned that the road from Smolensk to Moscow, on the opposite bank of the river, was covered with artillery and troops on their march. Disappointed and incensed, Buonaparte ordered the town to be instantly stormed, that he might have the use of its bridge for crossing the river, in order to pursue the fugitive Russians. Murat ventured to remonstrate against this measure, and even hinted at the imprudence of advancing further into Russia, at this season of the year. The reply of Napoleon must have been angry and insulting; for Murat, having exclaimed that an advance would be the destruction of the army, rode with all the speed of desperation, to the bank of the river, and placed himself under a tremendous fire from the Russians on the opposite side, Nor could he be forced, without extreme difficulty, from the perilous spot.

A general assault of Smolensk was now ordered, but the place was defended with great vigour and courage. Night came on; the town was not carried, and shells were ordered to be thrown into it, to dislodge the enemy. Presently, thick columns of smoke arose, and the assailants saw fires beginning to kindle faster and more generally than their bombardment could have occasioned. The whole city was soon in a blaze, affording to the French, said Buonaparte, the spectacle presented to the inhabitants of Naples, during an eruption of Vesuvius.

The French army entered the walls the next morning, 18th August, and traversed the reeking and blood-stained ruins with its accustomed order, pomp, and mu-

tial music, triumphing over the deserted wreck, and having no other witness of its glory than itself; a show without spectators, an almost fruitless victory,—a melancholy glory, of which the smoke that surrounded them, and seemed to be their only conquest, was but too faithful an emblem. Napoleon gave vent to his chagrin by exclaiming,—"Never was a war prosecuted with such ferocity; never did defence put on so hostile a shape against the common feelings of self-preservation. These people treat their own country as if they were its enemies!" The troops were struck with horror at the inveterate animosity of the Russians, and the desperation of the resistance which they met with; and all began to long for a period to a war, in which nothing was to be gained from a retreating enemy, but desolation and misery at every step of advance.

The Russian army now retired upon Viasma, followed by the rear-guard, which had been nearly intercepted by marshal Ney; but having received a seasonable re-inforcement, they were enabled to repulse him. Viasma not being considered tenable, every thing in it which could be considered of use to the enemy was destroyed, and the army took up a position near Moscow.

Hitherto, the Russian general, Barclay, had been enabled to adhere to his plan of not risking a general engagement; but in consequence of a violent clamour raised against him in the army, and to which Alexander thought it prudent to yield, he was suspended in the command, and Kutusof, a native general, was appointed in his stead. A battle was now resolved upon, and the Russian army marched to Borodino, on the frontier of the government of Moscow, there to conquer or die.

Kutusof drew up the whole Russian army under arms, and surrounded with every species of religious and military pomp, took his station in the middle of it; all the Russian clergy attached to the army, or whom he could assemble, arrayed in their rich vestments, and displaying for general worship the images of their holiest saints—marched before him. The general, as soon as his soldiers were sufficiently acted upon by the specta-

cle, appealed to their patriotism, their superstition, and their hatred of the French. Thus, a tincture of fanaticism was given to their courage. All even the meanest soldier, fancied themselves devoted by God himself to the defence of heaven and their consecrated soil.

Buonaparte's address to his troops was less vaunting than usual. "Soldiers," he said, "here is the battle you have longed for; it is necessary, for it brings plenty, good winter quarters, and a safe return to France. Behave yourselves, so that posterity may say of each of you, "He was in that great battle under the walls of Moscow."

It was remarked that Napoleon, on being apprized that Kutusof was opposed to him, became more cautious in his movements, and that he was more than usually anxious for the arrival of reinforcements. The interval of preparation, however, was no longer than was necessary for a conflict between two armies, each amounting to 120,000 men. It commenced on the morning of the 7th of September, by a tremendous attack on the Russian left, against which nearly one half of the French force was directed; while marshal Ney bore down on the centre, and Beauharnais assailed the right. Kutusof finding that his left, after a combat of three hours, was giving way, reinforced it with grenadiers and cavalry from the reserve, when a desperate effort was made to regain the lost position, from which the French were at length driven. Beauharnais made repeated efforts to carry the village of Borodino, and the redoubts which covered it, but he was ultimately repulsed with great loss. The Russians were then enabled to reinforce their centre, when the French withdrew at all points, leaving them masters of the field. They estimated their own loss at 40,000 in killed and wounded, and that of the enemy at 60,000. Napoleon himself, however, gave a very different account of the action to O'Meara, at St. Helena: "I attacked the Russians," said he, "whose army was 250,000, intrenched up to their necks, with 90,000 men, and totally defeated them. 70,000 Russians lay upon the field." Among the slain were generals Touchkoff and Konoritzen: prince Bagration afterwards died of his wounds.

Of the French generals, Montbrun was killed, and twelve others dangerously wounded.

During the whole of this engagement, Buonaparte seems to have been paralyzed, a circumstance which has been imputed to illness, as he had passed a bad night. He would not permit his guards to quit him, though he was frequently assured that a decisive victory only waited their assistance. When he was told from all sides it was the cry, that the moment for sending the guard was now come, he replied, "And if there should be another battle to-morrow, where is my army?" The fact is, that this body of 10,000 household troops were his last reserve.

The field of battle presented a horrible appearance; a lowering sky, a cold rain, a violent wind, houses burnt to ashes, a plain covered with ruins and rubbish, soldiers running about in all directions, hunting for provisions even in the haversacks of their dead companions, and bivouacks, in which reigned a gloomy silence. Round the eagles, were collected a few officers and soldiers, scarcely sufficient to protect them; their clothes torn in the fury of the combat, blackened with powder, and spotted with blood.

After this dearly purchased victory, Kutusof found himself unable to make head against the French troops which his antagonist was soon enabled to bring forward. He retreated the next day upon Mojaisk, and took up a position which covered the Moscow and Kalouga roads. On the 9th of September, the French arrived at Mojaisk, and made dispositions to attack the rear-guard of the Russians. But on the 11th, Kutusof again put his army in motion, leaving Napoleon in perfect uncertainty whether he had taken the road to Moscow or to Kolouga. Owing to this uncertainty, Napoleon was obliged to remain at Mojaisk till the 12th, when he received information that the Russians had retreated upon their capital, and sent Murat and Mortier in pursuit of them.

On the 12th of September, Buonaparte resumed his march; and for two days his soldiers were compelled to subsist on bruised wheat and horse flesh, without being able to discover a single trace of the retreating

foe. Kutusof did not halt till he reached File, in front of Moscow; here he took up a position, and informed Rostopchin, the governor of the city, that he would perish before it. But a council of war of the Russian generals having been called, it was determined that the preservation of the grand army was of greater importance than the defence of Moscow, and that therefore the ancient capital of the empire should be abandoned to its fate.

On Sunday the 13th September, the army of Kutusof, in full retreat, marched through the city with downcast looks, furled banners and silent drums, and went out at the Kolomna gate. The greater part of the remaining population followed, and fled in all directions across the country. On the following morning, the police and officers of government took their departure. The governor then caused the jails to be thrown open, and the criminals to be set at liberty; and abandoning the city to these lawless plunderers, to a few of the rabble, and to those who were unable to fly, mounted his horse, and at the head of his dependants followed the march of the army.

About five o'clock on Monday evening, the advanced guard of the French, under Murat and Beauharnais entered Moscow, and soon overpowered the small band which had lingered in the ancient palace of the tzars, called the Kremlin. Napoleon soon followed, and when the golden domes and spires of the city burst upon his view, his first exclamation was, "Behold at last that celebrated city!" His next, "It was full time." He then added to his soldiers, "All this is yours," and a shout of "Moscow! Moscow!" passed from rank to rank.

Before night, Buonaparte arrived at the gate of Smolensko, where he waited to receive the homage of the constituted authorities ere he made his triumphal entry, but none came. On sending to inquire the reason, he was told that Moscow was deserted. He sent one of his generals to make further inquiries; but not a Moscovite was to be seen; not the least smoke arose from a single chimney; not the slightest noise issued from the immense populous city; its 300,000 inhabi-

tants had vanished, and all was the silence of the desert. Still incredulous, the emperor commanded the public officers to be brought to him, nor could he be convinced of the truth of what had happened, until his messengers led to his presence the only live creatures that could be traced in the city—a miserable remnant of the lowest rank. The mortified conqueror entered without parade on the following day, and took up his residence in the Kremlin, from whose noble towers he beheld, as he thought, the reward and termination of his labours. But he was soon to be undeceived—of the consequences which ensued we shall make himself the narrator. "I was now," said he, "in the midst of a fine city, provisioned for a year; for in Russia they always lay in provisions for several months before the frost sets in. Stores of all kinds were in plenty. The houses of the inhabitants were well provided, and many had even left their servants to attend upon us. In most of them there were notes left by the proprietors, begging of the French officers who took possession, to be careful of their furniture and other effects; at the same time stating that they had left every article necessary for our wants, and hoped to return in a few days, when the emperor Alexander should have concluded a peace. Many ladies remained behind. They knew that I had been in Berlin and Vienna with my armies, and that no injury had been done to the inhabitants; and that moreover they expected a speedy termination of the war. We were in hope of engaging ourselves in winter quarters, with every prospect of success in the spring."

"Two days after our arrival, a fire was discovered which at first was not thought to be alarming, but to have been caused by the soldiers kindling their fires too near the houses, which were chiefly of wood. I was angry at this, and issued very strict orders to the commandants of regiments, and others. The next day it had increased, but still not so as to create serious alarm. However, afraid that it might gain upon us, I went out on horseback, and gave every direction to extinguish it. The next morning, a violent wind arose, and the fire spread with the greatest rapidity. Some

hundred miscreants, hired for that purpose, dispersed themselves in different parts of the town, and with matches, which they concealed under their cloaks, set fire to as many houses to windward as they could, which was easily done, in consequence of the combustible materials of which they are built. This, together with the violence of the wind, rendered every effort to extinguish the fire ineffectual. I myself narrowly escaped with life.

"In order to show an example, I ventured into the midst of the flames, and had my hair and eye-brows singed, my clothes burnt off my back; but it was in vain, as they had destroyed most of the pumps, of which there were above a thousand: out of all these, I believe that we could find only one that was serviceable. Besides, the wretches that had been hired by Rostopchin, ran about in every quarter, disseminating fire with their matches, in which they were but too much assisted by the wind. This terrible conflagration ruined every thing. I was prepared for all but this: it was unforeseen; for who would have thought that a nation would have set its capital on fire? The inhabitants, themselves, however, did all they could to extinguish it, and several of them perished in their endeavours. They also brought before us numbers of the incendiaries with their matches, and I caused about 200 of these wretches to be shot."

"Had it not been for this fatal fire, I possessed every thing my army wanted: excellent winter quarters, stores of all kinds were in plenty, and the next year would have decided it; Alexander would have made peace, or I would have been in Petersburg. Several of the generals were burnt out of their beds. I myself remained in the Kremlin, until surrounded by flames. The fire advanced, seized the Chinese and Indian warehouses, and several stores of oils and fruits, which burst forth in flames, and overwhelmed every thing. I then retired to a country-house of the emperor Alexander, distant about a league from Moscow; and you may figure to yourself the intensity of the fire, when I tell you, that you could scarcely bear your hands upon the walls of the windows on the side next to Moscow, in

consequence of their heated state. *It was a spectacle of a sea and billows of fire, a sky and clouds of flame; mountains of red rolling flames, like immense waves of the sea, alternately bursting forth and elevating themselves to skies of fire, and then sinking into oceans of flame below. Oh! it was the most grand, the most sublime, the most terrific sight the world ever beheld!"*

The fire continued to triumph, and consumed the work of centuries in a few days. "Palaces and temples," says Karamsin, the first of Russian historians, "monuments of art and miracles of luxury, the remains of past ages, and those which had been the creation of yesterday; the tombs of ancestors, and the nursery-cradles of the present generation, were indiscriminately destroyed. Nothing was left of Moscow, save the remembrance of the city, and the deep resolution to avenge its fall."

On the 20th of September, Buonaparte returned to the Kremlin, and as if in mockery of the awful scene which he had witnessed, caused a theatre to be fitted up, and issued rules for its government from the ancient palace of the Tzars. Well, therefore, might this paragon of inconsistencies repeat to the Abbé de Pradt the well-known maxim: "There is but one step from the sublime to the ridiculous."

Buonaparte, it will be perceived, ascribed the conflagration of Moscow to its governor. At first, it was represented to be the work of the French; but, from authorities given by Dr. Lyall, it appears to have been undoubtedly a plan pre-meditated by Rostopchin. His motive was patriotic; his object, to render Moscow totally unfit for the winter quarters of the enemy; and in this he completely succeeded.

In the mean time, the remnant of Moscow was delivered up as a prey to the soldiers of Napoleon; and a scene was exhibited that has few parallels in the history of the world. It was not uncommon to see the most tattered and forlorn wretches sitting among bales of rich merchandize, or displaying vestments, rich with barbaric pearl and gold; while others might be observed surrounded with luxuries, though they could scarcely procure carrion to eat, or muddy water to drink.

Sugar in abundance was mixed with the soup of horse-flesh; and intoxicating liquors, as drowning the remembrance of the past, and the dread of the future, were held in the highest request.

The fall of Moscow diffused a horror among the Russians; but shook not their determination to defend themselves to the last extremity. The emperor issued a declaration, assuring his subjects, that Kutusof had retreated, only to fall with accumulated force on the enemy; that Moscow offered a tomb rather than a dwelling to the invaders; and that the enemy would soon be compelled by famine to attempt his escape through the closing armies of Russia. As a precautionary measure, he sent the whole of his naval force to winter in England, and made preparations to abandon even Petersburg, being determined, he said, to drain the last drop of the cup of misery, rather than subject Russia to a foreign yoke. When the king of Sweden, in 1788, made some conciliating proposals to Catherine, she exclaimed, "Were the king of Sweden at Moscow, I would show him what a woman like me could do, standing on the ruins of a mighty empire." Alexander, placed in more critical circumstances than she had imagined, actually displayed that magnanimity of which she could only boast.

Buonaparte still lingered about the devoted capital, as if it had been still his intention to retain it. At length, however, the firmness of the Russians, unshaken by sacrifices and misfortunes, the assemblage of fresh bodies of their troops around the capital, and the approach of inclement seasons, reminded him of the folly and danger of prolonging his stay. He, at first, tried to negociate. General Lauriston, sent to the Russian head quarters with a flag of truce, informed Kutusof that his master was ready to treat. The answer returned was, that no treaty could be entered into, while a foreigner remained within the frontiers. Napoleon sent Lauriston a second time to demand, that if the Russian general would not listen to a negociation, he would forward a letter to the emperor Alexander. "I will do that," replied Kutusof, "provided the word *peace* is not expressed in the letter. I would not be a

party to such an insult on my sovereign, by forwarding a proposal which he would order instantly to be destroyed. You already know on what terms offers of peace shall be attended to." Lauriston was sent a third time to the Russian head-quarters, with an offer that the French should evacuate Moscow, and take up a position in the neighbourhood, where the terms of a treaty might be afterwards arranged; but Kutusof's reply was, that it was not time to grant either peace, or an armistice, as the Russians were just opening the campaign.

At length, when too late, the eyes of Napoleon were opened to his real situation. He announced his intention to retire into the Polish provinces until the return of spring, when, having recruited his armies, he would advance to Petersburg, and avenge the horrors of the Moscow campaign. But his preparations for retreat were slowly and reluctantly made; and some of them were dictated by his vanity, rather than his judgment. He commanded all the pictures, images, and ornaments of the churches which were left unburnt, to be laid upon wains, and to follow the line of march, already too much encumbered with baggage. That all the artillery and baggage might be transported, he gave an order to buy 20,000 horses, where, perhaps, there were not a hundred to be sold, and where those which the army had already, were daily dying from want of forage.

A strong corps of 45,000 men, under Murat, which Napoleon had dispatched towards Kalouga, to engage the main Russian army, while he effected his retreat with the rest of his troops, was defeated October 18th, at Mala-Yarowslavitz, with the loss of 2,500 killed, 1,000 prisoners, 38 pieces of cannon, and 40 ammunition waggons. Every thing which the Russians saw in the enemy's camp, convinced them of the extremity to which the French were reduced: flayed cats and horse-flesh were the dainties found in the king of Naples' kitchen.

On the 19th of October, before day-break, the emperor in person left Moscow, after an abode of thirty-four days. He left orders to blow up the Kremlin; but general Hierasky arrived in time to prevent the

completion of this outrage. The French army which quitted Moscow with their leader, consisted of 120,000 men, marching in good order, and followed by 550 pieces of cannon. But in the rear of the troops, came a motley group of followers of the camp, stragglers and prisoners, who resembled a horde of Tartars returning from a successful invasion.

The grand army, pressed on right and left, by the accumulating forces of the Russians, proceeded towards Smolensko. Thus harassed, their retreat became more and more difficult; and nothing was now thought of but how to quit a country which they had lately entered in triumph. A stand was attempted at Viasma, but without success; and the French, weary and dispirited, were driven from their positions with much slaughter.

On the 6th of November, commenced all the horrors of a Russian winter. Hitherto the air, though extremely cold, had been clear; but now no sun was visible, and thick fogs were soon changed into a heavy fall of snow, which at once chilled and blinded the soldiers. A stormy wind also began to arise, and whirl the snow from the earth, as well as from the heavens, into dizzy eddies around the soldiers heads. In the day, this was dreadful; but during a night of sixteen hours, without shelter, fire, or food, their condition cannot even be imagined. They stumbled forward; some sinking in the holes and ravines which were concealed by the snow, while others were hurled to the ground by the blast, and stiffened into corpses on the plain. Amidst these overwhelming misfortunes, every sentiment of mutual tenderness and compassion seemed to be annihilated; confidence and discipline, which had hitherto remained in a great degree unimpaired, were entirely lost, and thus the horrors of the retreat greatly augmented.

From this period ensued a series of terrible disasters, which shall be described in Napoleon's own words.

"I was a few days too late; I had made a calculation of the weather for the last fifty years before, and the extreme cold had never commenced until about the 20th of December, twenty days later than it began

this time. While I was at Moscow, the cold was at three of the thermometer, and was such as the French could with pleasure bear. But on the march the thermometer sunk eighteen degrees, and consequently nearly all the horses perished. In one night I lost thirty thousand.

"The artillery, of which I had 500 pieces, was in a great measure obliged to be abandoned: neither ammunition nor provisions could be carried. We could not, from want of horses, make a reconnoisance, or send out an advance of men on horseback to recover the way. The soldiers lost their spirits and their senses, and fell into confusion. The most trifling circumstance alarmed them. Four or five men were sufficient to terrify a whole battalion. Instead of keepiug together, they wandered about in search of fire. Parties when sent out on duty in advance, abandoning their posts, went to seek the means of warming themselves in the houses; they separated in all directions, became helpless, and fell an easy prey to the enemy. Others lay down, fell asleep, a little blood came from their nostrils, and sleeping, they died. In this manner thousands perished. The Poles saved some of their horses and artillery, but the French, and the soldiers of the other nations, were no longer the same men. In particular the cavalry suffered. Out of 40,000, I do not think that 3,000 were saved."

Napoleon reached Smolensko on the 9th of November. The stragglers of the army, who were considerably in advance of those who kept their ranks, rushed headlong to the place; but such was their emaciated, and at the same time ferocious aspect, that their countrymen regarded them as banditti, rather than soldiers, and refused them admission. At length, the imperial guards arrived, and were admitted; and the miscellaneous crowd immediately followed them. To the guards, and a few others who had observed discipline, rations were distributed, but the mass of the stragglers died of want, many of them expiring at the doors of the magazines which they in vain besieged. Nor were the quarters which the army had expected to obtain at Smolensko, any where to be found. The city having

been burnt by the Russians, no other covering was to be had than was afforded by miserable sheds erected against the blackened walls that had remained from the general wreck; while many of the wretched fugitives were compelled to bivouack on wreathes of snow.

Buonaparte remained at Smolensko until the 15th, when he set out for Krasnoi. Davoust, who followed the emperor, after blowing up the ramparts, was beaten by Milarodavich on the 15th, and escaped with the loss of 4,000 killed and wounded, and 9,000 taken prisoners, with 70 pieces of cannon. He also lost the whole of his baggage, three standards, and his *baton de marechal.*

Ney, who left Smolensko with the rear-guard on the day of battle, was surprised by the victorious Russians, and compelled to fly with a small proportion of his staff, leaving 11,000 of his troops in the hands of his pursuers. In the mean time, the Russian general Wittgenstein, after a series of successes against the corps of St. Cyr, Oudinot, and Victor, advanced from Polotsk, and on the 8th of November, reached Vitepsk, where he was informed of the retreat of the grand French army. On the 18th, he was informed of the flight of the Austrian and Saxon auxiliaries, and of the rapid advance of the Russians in pursuit. Wittgenstein was soon in communication with Platoff, and the commander-in-chief, so that the whole force of the Russian empire was now directly co-operating against the retreating enemy.

After quitting Krasnoi, the French emperor was informed that his stores at Minsk were in the hands of the Russians; that the Polish general Dombrowsky was routed; that the corps of Oudinot and Victor were dispersed; and that the Russian grand army, the army of the Dwina on its left, and that of the Danube on its right, were closing upon him. To secure his escape, he ordered two bridges to be thrown over the Beresina, at Studenzi and Vasilova. All night the French laboured at the bridges, which were yet but little advanced, and might have been easily demolished by the artillery of the Russians, who were posted on the opposite side. But what was their joy, when, with the first beams of the morning, they beheld that artillery

and those Russians in full march, retreating from position, under a mistaken idea that the passage of river would be attempted at another place!

During the 26th and 27th, Napoleon pushed troops across the river, those of Oudinot forming the advance, and was soon so secure, that the Russian general, discovering his error, and moving back to regain his former position, found the French too strongly posted for his regaining the opportunity which he had lost. By noon, Napoleon and his guards had passed the bridge, but a scene of the most fearful horrors ensued.

On the heights of Studenzi, Victor, with the French rear-guard was prepared to cover the retreat over the bridges. The right of this corps rested on the river; a ravine full of bushes covered their front, but the left wing had no point of support, being merely covered by two regiments of cavalry. Behind this defensive line, was a motley group of many thousands of stragglers, mingled with the usual followers of a camp; while the baggage, which still amounted to a great number of carts and other vehicles, was seen, some filing toward the bridges, and the greater part standing in confusion upon the shore. The artillery itself, such as remained, was in no better state.

Such was the condition of matters at the bridge, when Wittgenstein, marching down the left bank of the river, engaged in a fierce combat with the rear-guard under Victor. It was then that the stragglers and fugitives, rushed in distracted crowds to the bridges, every feeling of prudence and humanity being swallowed up by the powerful instinct of self-preservation. The horrible scene of disorder was increased by the violence of those, who, determined to make their way at all risks, threw down and trampled upon whatever came in their road. The weak and helpless either shrunk back from the fray, or sat down to wait their fate at a distance, or, mixing in it, were thrust over the bridges, crushed under carriages, or trampled to death under the feet of their countrymen.

About mid-day, the French were compelled to assume a position nearer the bridges. At the same time, the large bridge, that was constructed for artillery

and heavy carriages, broke down, and multitudes were forced into the water. The scream of expiring anguish which followed, was so piercing and universal, that a spectator of the scene declared that the sound was in his ears for many weeks. These horrors continued till dark, many being forced into the icy river, some throwing themselves in, betwixt absolute despair and the faint hope of gaining the opposite bank, some getting across only to die of cold and exhaustion. As the obscurity came on, Victor, with the remainder of his troops, quitted the station he had bravely defended, and led them across. All night the crowd continued to press over the bridge, under the play of the Russian artillery; but at day-break, the French engineer, general Elbé, set fire to it, and thus cut off all hope of escape from those who remained on the other side. The amount of the French loss was never exactly known, but according to the Russian accounts, 36,000 bodies were found in the Beresina, and collected and burnt as soon as the thaw permitted.

On the 5th of December, Buonaparte left his army, after having called a council of his generals, and entrusted the chief command to Murat. Three sledges were provided for his departure; one of which was prepared to carry him and Caulaincourt, whose title he proposed to assume. In this humble vehicle, a lively emblem of the fishing boat of Xerxes, he placed himself at the late hour of ten at night, and with his few attendants set out for Paris.

After having narrowly escaped being taken by the Russian partisan Seslawin, at a hamlet called Youpranoui, Napoleon reached Warsaw upon the 10th of December. Here the abbé de Pradt, then minister of France to the diet of Poland, was in the act of endeavouring to reconcile the various rumours which poured in from every quarter, when a figure like a spectre, wrapped in furs which were stiffened by hoar frost, stalked into his apartment, supported by a domestic, and was with difficulty recognized as the duke of Vicenza.

"You here, Caulaincourt!" said the astonished prelate, "and where is the emperor?" "At the hotel

d'Angleterre, waiting for you." "Why not stop at the palace?" "He travels *incognito*." "Do you need any thing?"—"Some Burgundy or Malaga,"—"All is at your service; but whither are you travelling?"—"To Paris."—"To Paris! but where is the army?" "It exists no longer," said Caulaincourt, looking upwards. "And the victory of the Beresina—and the six thousand prisoners?" "We got across, that is all, the prisoners were a few hundred men, who have escaped. We had other business than to guard them."

His curiosity thus far satisfied, the abbé de Pradt hastened to the hotel. In the yard stood three sledges in a dilapidated condition. One for the emperor and Caulaincourt, the second for two officers of rank, the third for the mameluke Rustan and another domestic. He was introduced with some mystery into a "bad inn's bad room," where a servant girl was blowing a fire of green wood. Here was the emperor, whom the abbé de Pradt had last seen, when he played king of kings among the assembled sovereigns at Dresden. He was dressed in a green pellisse, covered with lace and lined with furs, and, by walking briskly about the apartment, was endeavouring to obtain the warmth which the chimney refused. He saluted "Monsieur l'Ambassadeur," as he termed him, with gaiety. The abbé felt a movement of sensibility, to which he was disposed to give way, but, as he says, "The poor man did not understand me." He limited his expressions of devotion, therefore, to helping Napoleon off with his cloak. He heard from his minister, that the minds of the inhabitants of the grand duchy of Warsaw had been much changed since they had been led to despair of the regeneration of their country, and that they were already, since they could not be free Polanders, studying how to reconcile themselves with their former governors of Prussia. The entrance of two Polish ministers checked the ambassador's communications. The conversation was maintained from that moment by the emperor alone; or rather he indulged a monologue, which turned upon the sense he entertained that the failure of his Russian expedition would diminish his reputation, while he struggled against

the painful conviction, by numbering up the plans by which he might repair his losses, and alleging the natural obstacles to which he had been obliged to succumb. "We must levy 10,000 Poles," he said, "and check the advance of these Russians. A lance and a horse is all that is necessary. There is but a step betwixt the sublime and the ridiculous." The functionaries congratulated him on his escape from so many dangers. "Dangers!" he replied, "none in the world. I live in agitation. The more I bustle, the better I am. It is for kings of Cockaigne to fatten in their palaces—horseback and the fields are for me." "Why do I find you so much alarmed here?" "We are at loss to gather the truth of the news about the army," said they. "Bah! replied the emperor; "the army is in a superb condition. I have 120,000 men—I have beat the Russians in every action—they are no longer the soldiers of Friedland and Eylau. The army will recruit at Wilna—I am going to bring up 300,000 men—success will render the Russians fool-hardy—I will give them battle twice or thrice upon the Oder, and in a month, I will be again upon the Niemen. I have more weight when seated upon my throne, than at the head of my army. All that has happened goes for nothing—a mere misfortune, in which the enemy can claim no merit—I beat them every where—they wished to cut me off at the Beresina—I made a fool of that ass of an admiral, (he could never pronounce the name Tchitchigoff.) I had good troops and cannon—the position was superb—five hundred toises of marsh—a river—this he repeated twice, then ran over the distinction in the 29th bulletin between men of strong and feeble minds, and proceeded—"I have seen worse affairs than this—at Marengo I was beaten till six o'clock in the evening—next day I was master of Italy—at Essling that arch-duke tried to stop me—he published something or other—my army had already advanced a league and a half—I did not even condescend to make any disposition. All the world knows how such things are managed when I am in the field. I could not help the Danube rising sixteen feet in one night. Ah! without that there would have been an end

of the Austrian monarchy. But it was written in heaven that I should marry an arch-duchess." (This was said with an air of much gaiety.) "In the same manner, in Russia, I could not prevent its freezing. They told me every morning that I had lost 10,000 horses during the night. Well, farewell to you," he bade them adieu five or six times in the course of the harangue, but always returned to the subject. "Our Norman horses are less hardy than those of the Russians—they sink under ten degrees of cold. It is the same with the men. Look at the Bavarians; there is not one left. Perhaps it may be said that I stopped too long at Moscow; that may be true, but the weather was fine—the winter came on prematurely—besides, I expected peace. On the 5th of October, I sent Lauriston to treat. I thought of going to St. Petersburg, and I had time enough to have done so, or to have gone to the south of Russia, or to Smolensko. Well, we will make head at Wilna; Murat is left there. Ha, ha, ha! It is a great political game. Nothing venture, nothing win—it is but one step from the sublime to the ridiculous. The Russians have shown they have character—their emperor is beloved by his people—they have clouds of Kozacks—it is something to have such a king—the peasants of the crown love their government—the nobility are all mounted on horseback. They proposed to me to set the slaves at liberty, but that I could not consent to—they would have massacred every one. I made regular war upon the emperor Alexander, but who could have expected such a blow as the burning of Moscow? Now they would lay it on us, but it was in fact themselves who did it. That sacrifice would have done honour to ancient Rome." He returned to his favourite purpose of checking the Russians who had just annihilated his grand army, by raising a large body of Polish lancers, to whom, as things stood, it would have been difficult to have proposed any adequate motive for exertion. The fire went out, and the counsellors listened in frozen despair, while, keeping himself warm by walking up and down, and by his own energies, the emperor went on with his monologue; now betraying, in spite of

feelings and sentiments which he would have concealed; now dwelling upon that which he wished others to believe; and then repeating as the burden of his harangue, the aphorism which he has rendered immortal concerning the vicinity of the sublime and the ludicrous.

At the close of this remarkable interview, Napoleon threw himself into his sledge, the horses sprung forward, nearly overturned the carriage as it crossed the court-yard gate, and disappeared in the darkness. He pursued his journey with secrecy and speed, and reached Paris on the 18th, but at so late an hour that he found difficulty in gaining admission to the palace.

The French, abandoned by their leader, and harassed by the Kozacks, arrived at Wilna on the 10th; but they had scarcely entered the town, when the cannon of the Russians was heard. Murat and the rest of the generals in vain endeavoured to assemble the troops; they were more intent on plunder and obtaining shelter, than on repulsing the enemy. The cry, however, "Here are the Kozacks!" roused them, not to fight, but to fly. Ney attempted in vain to rally them; he was even obliged to join in the flight, which was continued till, on the 13th of December, they reached the frontiers of Prussian Poland.

Thus terminated the base and unprincipled invasion of Russia, by Napoleon. The total amount of the destruction of human life which this *chæuf d'œuvre* of his ambition occasioned, it is impossible to calculate; and it is equally in vain to attempt to form any adequate conception of the intensity and extent of suffering to which it gave rise. The wars of modern Europe have furnished no instance of so extensive and complete a destruction; and history records no similar event since the invasion of Greece by Xerxes. The losses which the French sustained in battle and retreat have been thus stated:—

Slain in fight	125,000
Died from fatigue, hunger, and the severity of the climate	132,000
Prisoners	193,000
	450,000

The relics of the grand army which escaped the general wreck, independent of the two auxiliary armies of Austria and Prussia, which knew little of its horrors, might be about 40,000, of whom scarcely 10,000 were Frenchmen.

Having succeeded in expelling the enemy from his own dominions, Alexander resolved to improve his successes for the salvation of Europe. When his troops passed the frontiers of Russia, he published a declaration, in which he disclaimed all views of conquest, and called upon Europe to embrace the opportunity which Providence afforded to re-establish an equilibrium of power—This call was not made in vain.

On or about the 1st of March, Prussia signed a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, with Russia. On the 15th of the same month, the emperor Alexander arrived at Breslau. The interview between the two sovereigns was tender and affecting; for they had been intimate friends, and though circumstances of imperious necessity had made them enemies, they had always retained a feeling of mutual respect and attachment. The king of Prussia wept. "Courage, my brother," said Alexander; "these are the last tears which Napoleon shall cause you to shed."

On the 16th of March, Prussia declared war against France. Sweden soon after joined the rising confederacy, and by a treaty of subsidy with Great Britain, engaged to employ on the continent 30,000 men under the crown prince. Before the end of March, the Russian and Prussian troops spread themselves on the left bank of the Elbe, drove the French, under general Merand, from Luneburg, and frustrated the attempt of Beauharnais to surprise Berlin.

The predominance of the allies in the north of Germany seemed now so clearly ascertained, that the adherents of France appeared disposed to desert her cause. Denmark began to treat with the combined powers; Saxony desired to stipulate for a neutrality; and Austria looked upon the strife with a cautious and doubtful eye.

Buonaparte, meanwhile, having silenced the doubts and discontents which his misfortunes had excited at

Paris, made with the greatest ardour preparations for a new campaign. A hundred thousand youths who had been placed in frontier garrisons, were converted into ordinary soldiers of the line; while four regiments of guards, one of Polish cavalry, and one of gendarmes were at the same time withdrawn from the Peninsula. The sailors were landed or brought from the harbours, and formed into corps of artillery. The conscription, with the assistance of a decree of the senate, placed in his hands the anticipation of the year 1814. This decree carried his levies of every kind to 350,000 men. Thus Napoleon found himself at the head of a force little inferior to that which he had heretofore commanded.

Eugene, at the approach of the new French levies, removed from Magdeburg, and formed a junction with them on the Saale. The forces which were thus united, probably amounted to 115,000 men; but the greater part of them were raw recruits, and many were almost boys. The allied army, in the mean time, was collected towards Leipsic, and lay full in Napoleon's road to that city, and from thence to Dresden, which was the point on which he advanced.

Skirmishes took place at Weissenfels and Poserno upon the 29th of April and 1st of May; and on the 2nd of this month was fought the memorable battle of Lutzen. On the same field where Gustavus the Great lost his life, the fight became general about noon, and was maintained with most destructive obstinacy for seven hours. The allies finding at last that they were in danger of being surrounded by the enclosing wings of the French army, led back their forces, without further loss than the carnage sustained in the battle. This, however, was immense, amounting it is said to 20,000 men in killed and wounded.

The combined armies retreated to Bautzen, where they took up a strong position to the rear of the town, and with the river Spree in their front. Here they were attacked by Buonaparte on the 21st, and after an obstinate struggle were again compelled to retire. But their retreat was as orderly as it had been after the battle of Lutzen: not a gun was taken, and scarcely a prisoner was made.

Though in these engagements, Buonaparte had been successful, the advantages had been dearly purchased; the allies fought bravely, retired in good order upon their resources, and had reason to expect new confederates. He therefore availed himself of the disposition of Austria to propose to the emperor Alexander, as a prelude to the congress for a general pacification, an armistice, which was signed on the 4th of June.

The congress assembled at Prague; but it soon appeared that Buonaparte would not agree to such terms as were adapted to ensure the tranquillity of Europe. Austria declared for the allies, and formed a treaty with Great Britain, Russia, and Prussia. The armistice expired August the 10th, and both sides prepared to resume their operations in the field,

In the beginning of August, Napoleon had assembled 250,000 men in Saxony and Silesia; and this great force was so stationed, as best to confront the enemy on the points where they had assembled their troops. The preparations of the allies were upon a scale of correspondent grandeur; while they agreed upon a plan of operations equally cautious and effective. It was resolved that the general against whom Buonaparte's first effort should be directed, should on no account accept of battle, but retire before the emperor, while the other armies of the allies should advance upon his rear, cut off his communications, and close upon him in every direction. Blucher was the first to carry this plan into effect. By advancing from Silesia, and threatening the armies of Macdonald and Ney, he induced Buonaparte to hasten to their relief, and immediately commenced his retreat.

While Napoleon was pressing upon the retiring Prussians, he received the alarming intelligence that Dresden was in the utmost danger of being taken. Leaving, therefore, to Macdonald the task of controlling Blucher, he immediately set out with the flower of his army, and was just in time to save the object of his solicitude.

On the 25th of August, the allies drew up their army before Dresden, and commenced a most vigorous assault. They closed on the French on every point;

the bombs and balls fell thick on the terrified city, and the besieged began to think a surrender inevitable. At this crisis, Napoleon was seen advancing with his troops from the right side of the Elbe; they swept over the bridges, marched through the city, and halted on the western side, from which it was designed they should debouche on the enemy.

Two sallies were then made on the besiegers by Ney and Mortier, which were crowned with success. The Prussians were dislodged from an open space which covered their advance upon the ramparts, and together with their allies, were compelled to relinquish attacks, which were repulsed by new and unexpected defenders.

On the 27th of August, the battle was renewed amidst rain and storm. Napoleon caused his troops to file out from the city upon different points, and commenced an attack upon both flanks of the enemy. After a severe contest, the allies were again compelled to retreat. The French pursued them in every direction, and took, what of late had been unusual, a great number of prisoners. In this battle, the allies lost 10,000 men; and the famous general Moreau, who had one of his legs carried away, and the other shattered, while he was conversing with the emperor Alexander in the field.

This success of the French, however, was but temporary. Napoleon's generals, though brave, were greatly inferior to their leader, in military science. Macdonald was vanquished in Silesia; Ney near Berlin; Vandamme at Culm.

After defeating attempts of Buonaparte, first to overthrow Blucher, and then Schwartzenberg, the allies resolved on a combined movement towards Leipsic, which should terminate the campaign. To this point, Schwartzenberg moved by Freyberg and Chemnitz with a large army of Austrians, Russians, and Prussians Blucher crossed the Elbe, October 3rd, and fixed his head-quarters at Kremberg, and next day, the crown prince passed the river Acken. In consequence of these movements, Buonaparte quitted Dresden, and at Rochlitz, twenty miles south of Leipsic, collected his armies, which are said to have amounted to 180,000 men

and commanded them to hasten to the scene of action. The crown prince and Blucher having formed a junction, passed the Saale, and the advance of the Bohemian army approached Altenberg just at the time, when, in consequence of the treaty concluded between Austria and Bavaria, 55,000 Bavarians joined the allied cause. Thus the last act of the grand drama, so far as the scene lay in Germany, was prepared.

At break of day, on the 16th of October, the battle of Leipsic began. After great slaughter, but little progress, the combatants remained in their different positions. Napoleon perceiving, from the superiority of the enemy's numbers, that the retreat of his army had become inevitable, and at the same time, that to accomplish it through the streets of a crowded city, would be a work of great difficulty and peril, sent a messenger to the camp of the allies with offers of peace, on the terms that had been proposed at Prague. But no answer was deigned, until he had recrossed the Rhine. The allies had solemnly determined that they would enter into no treaty with him, while an individual of his army remained in Germany.

Next day, being principally spent in preparation, without any actual hostilities, the allies moved, on the 18th, to the attack of Leipsic. The battle was soon joined on all sides. Along the southern line, the fire continued furious on both sides, nor could it be perceived by the spectators from the walls and steeples of the city, whether it advanced or recoiled. About two o'clock in the afternoon, the allies forced their way into Probtsheyda; but Napoleon, having placed himself at the head of his old guards, led them in person to recover the village, and saw them force their entrance before he retired. Through the whole of the day, this wonderful man displayed the utmost calmness and courage; nor, where he was present in person, did he suffer the enemy to preserve a single triumph.

On the north side of Leipsic, Ney being overpowered with numbers, was obliged to retreat and concentrate his forces nearer the city, that he might communicate by his right with the army of Napoleon. The Russians had orders to force this position, and particularly to

drive back the advanced guard of Regnier, that were stationed on an eminence. On a sudden, the Saxons who occupied the French line on that point, deserted to the allies, with swords sheathed and colours of truce displayed. In consequence of this act of nefarious treachery, Ney was again obliged to contract his line of defence; and the crown prince, defeating all opposition, pressed him into a position close under the walls of Leipsic. The battle now ceased, and the field was left by the French to the slain and wounded.

Next day the emperor Alexander, rejecting a flag of truce from the King of Saxony, entreating him to spare the town, ordered a general assault, and two hours after Buonaparte's escape, Leipsic was taken with little resistance. The king of Saxony and his court, with the rear-guard of the French army, 30,000 strong, the sick and wounded, artillery, and stores, fell into the hands of the allies. The emperor Alexander, the king of Prussia, and the crown prince of Sweden, met at the head of their respective armies, in the square of the city amidst the acclamations of the people.

The French army retreated in the greatest confusion towards the Rhine, of which the Bavarians, who had also revolted, wished to prevent the passage; but the French crushed them at Hanau, and re-entered upon the territory of the empire on the 30th of October, 1813. The end of this campaign was almost as disadvantageous as that of the preceding. The nations had risen with one consent to burst their bonds of enslavement; and France was to be menaced within its own territories. Napoleon returned to Paris on the 9th of November.

The allied sovereigns conducted their victorious armies towards the right bank of the Rhine; but before resuming hostilities, they resolved once more to offer peace to the emperor of France. The basis of the proposed treaty were, that France should return to her natural limits; and that the independence of Italy, Germany, Holland, and Spain, should be guaranteed. But it did not suit the lofty ambition of Napoleon, to occupy a throne, the glory of which, to use his own words, was tarnished; the terms of the allies therefore were rejected.

The allied monarchs, having now determined to invade France, published on the 1st of December, a manifesto declaratory of their principles and conduct. "Victory," they said, "had conducted them to the banks of the Rhine, and the first use which they made of it, was to offer peace. They desired that France should be great and powerful, because in a state of greatness and strength, she constituted one of the foundations of the social edifice. They offered to confirm to the French empire an extent of territory which France, under kings, never knew. They desired a state of peace, which, by restoring a just equilibrium of power, might preserve their people from the numberless calamities which had overwhelmed Europe for the last twenty years; and they were determined not to lay down their arms until that great object was secured." The allied armies now passed the frontiers of France, and spread themselves through Alsace and Franchecomté, without meeting with any resistance that deserved the name.

Buonaparte, meanwhile, endeavoured to make every preparation for the approaching campaign. He imposed additional taxes; he obtained from the senate a levy of 300,000 men, and sent special commissioners with authority to organize the means of defence in all the military divisions. By day, he was incessantly engaged in actively reviewing troops, inspecting stores, and all the preparations for a desperate resistance. By night, the lights were seen to glimmer late and long in the windows of his apartments in the Tuileries. He appeared publicly among the national guard with his empress and infant, and announced that being about to place himself at the head of his army, he committed to his good citizens of Paris the security of his capital, his wife, and his child.

On the 25th of January, 1814, Napoleon left Paris. At the moment of his departure, to put his troops in motion, the two armies of Schwartzenberg and Blucher were upon the point of effecting their junction in Champagne, and he hastened to attack them. General Maison was instructed to stop the career of Bernadotte in Belgium; Augereau, the Austrians at Lyons; Soult, the English upon the Spanish frontiers; prince Eugene

was to defend Italy; and, the empire, although assailed at its centre, still extended its vast armies to the heart of Germany, by its garrisons beyond the Rhine.

Napoleon did not despair of expelling, by means of a powerful military re-action, this host of enemies from France, and even of again turning the tide of fortune in his favour. Arrived at Chalons, on the 26th of January, he undertook the command of such an army as he had been able to assemble, and which did not consist of more than 70,000 men. No military chief, however, understood better than he, that victory does not depend upon numerical superiority in general, but on the art of obtaining such a superiority on the field of battle.

Blucher had concentrated his forces at Brienne, where the alert movemements of Buonaparte took him by surprise. He was at table with his staff, at the chateau, when, all at once, a horrible tumult was heard. The Russian cavalry were driven in by those of Napoleon, and at the same moment, Ney attacked the village; while a body of French grenadiers, who had entered the park, threatened to make prisoners of all who were in the chateau. Blucher and his staff, howeverthough with great difficulty, made their escape In the mean time, the Russians defended the village with success; the Kozacks fell on the rear of the forces in the park; and Buonaparte, in turn, was exposed to the most imminent peril. Men were killed by his side, and he was obliged to draw his sword in his own defence. At this moment, his attention was engaged by the sight of a tree, under which, he used, when a school-boy, at Brienne, to peruse the "Jerusalem Delivered" of Tasso. Had circumstances permitted a brief remission of the conflict, with what feeling and sentiments would Napoleon have contemplated the mighty changes in his fortune, which intervening years had produced!—The village having caught fire, was burnt to the ground, and Blucher retreated.

On the 1st of February, Blucher, strongly reinforced from the grand army, attacked the line of the French, and after hard fighting during the whole day, compelled them to retreat across the Ube.

Buonaparte retreated to Troyes, where he formed a junction with his old guards, and immediately determined to march against Blucher, who was marching upon Paris, by the Marne. But in order to conceal his intention, he sent a small detachment of his forces to alarm the Austrians, with an attack upon their right wing. Having deceived Schwartzenberg by this feint, he evacuated Troyes, leaving Victor and Oudinot to oppose the Austrians, while he directed an attack upon Blucher.

Napoleon had to traverse a country full of natural obstacles of every kind, and in the midst of the most unfavourable weather; but by dint of perseverance, he effected his forced march, and on the 10th of February, came up with the enemy, who were pressing forward to Paris with the most careless haste. Sacken led the advance; the Russian general Alsafieff followed; and Blucher himself brought up the main body.

Buonaparte fell upon the central division of Alsafieff, and completely routed it. He then attacked Sacken, and having cut off one fourth of his division, compelled him to retreat to Château Thierry. At this village, Sacken was joined by general d'Yorck and Prince William of Prussia; but still unable to make a stand, he could only secure a retreat by destroying the bridge over the Marne.

Blucher, in the mean time, who had hastened to the support of his van-guard, suddenly found himself in the front of the whole army of Napoleon, which was so numerous as to make a retreat on his part indispensable; and this he effected with admirable skill.—This expedition of the Marne is always accounted one of Napoleon's greatest exploits.

Schwartzenberg, having learnt the misfortunes on the Marne, pushed forward from three directions on the capital, and dispatched forces from his right to threaten Napoleon's rear. Leaving the pursuit of Blucher, the emperor countermarched on Meaux, and marching from thence to Guignes, he joined the army of Oudinot and Victor, and found the reinforcements which he had ordered from Spain. With this army, he assumed the offensive, and with considerable success.

Alarmed by the near approach of their formidable enemy, the allies sent a message to Napoleon, to express their surprise at his offensive operations, since they had given orders to their ministers at Châtillon, to sign the preliminaries of peace, on the terms that had been agreed upon by Caulaincourt. But Buonaparte, instead of honouring them with a reply, pursued his advantages, and recovered the bridge at Mantereau, after a desperate attack. During this action, the emperor delighted his soldiers, by pointing several guns himself; and when the balls of the enemy beginning to thicken around, they expressed their concern for his safety, he ridiculed their fears, and exclaimed: "Go, my children, the ball is not cast that is to kill me." Buonaparte succeeded in taking the place.

Blucher, having recruited his troops, had moved southward to Méry, a town situate at the north-east of Troyes, to which place the allied monarchs had again removed their head quarters. Here he was furiously attacked by the troops of Buonaparte, but he succeeded in keeping possession of the town.

A council of war was held by the allies, at which Blucher, with his wonted ardour, proposed an immediate action with Buonaparte. But the Austrian commander determined on a general retreat, as far as the line between Nancy and Langres, in order to support his detachments at Dijon, which began to be threatened by Augereau, whose army had been reinforced. Blucher, in the mean time, was to re-establish his head-quarters on the Marne, where, strengthened by an army which was approaching from Flanders, he might resume his advance upon Paris, if Buonaparte should pursue the Austrians to the south.

On the 23rd of February, Napoleon sent a reply to the letter of the allies, which related to the negociations for peace; but as it was addressed exclusively to the emperor of Austria, it was at first resolved that no rejoinder should be made. Afterwards, however, in order to gain time for the junction of several divisions of the army, it was determined to accept the offer for a suspension of hostilities, and the prince of Lichtenstein was sent to the head-quarters of Napoleon, to treat of an armistice.

On the night of the 23rd, the French bombarded Troyes, and on the 24th, entered the town as victors. The sick and the wounded that had been left behind by the allies were dragged forth to grace, or rather disgrace the triumph of Napoleon; and a French nobleman, who had hoisted the white cockade, was tried by a military commission, and shot.

It is difficult for Englishmen, whose country has been for ages preserved from the horrors of invasion, to form any idea of the miseries which were inflicted upon France, during this sanguinary contest between Napoleon and the allies. The soldiers, on both sides, driven to desperation by fatigue and hardship, committed the most brutal excesses upon the inhabitants. The peasants, with their wives and children, fled to caves and woods for refuge, where the latter died of hunger and cold; and whence the former, collecting into small bodies, pillaged the convoys of both armies, and cut off the wounded and stragglers. The allies were indifferent to the general claims of humanity; the French to the ties of country and language. Towns and villages were burnt to the ground; farms wasted and plundered; and the abodes of industry and comfort converted into heaps of ruin. Wolves and other savage animals were multiplied in the line of desolation; and the grave itself ceased to afford an asylum to the dead. Thus were the evils which France had inflicted upon others, retaliated upon herself. Thus, in the righteous retributions of Providence, "with what measure she had meted unto others, it was meted to her again."

Notwithstanding the successes of Buonaparte, where he was able to command in person, the clouds of misfortune began to thicken around him. Murat revolted to the Austrians. Augereau was obliged to evacuate Franche Comté, and to fall back under the walls of Lyons. Hamburg was blockaded by the allies under Benningsen. Bulow and Winzingerode effected a junction with Blucher, and thus strengthened the army of that veteran chief. Wellington was approaching from the south-west frontier with his victorious bands; while in the west, the standard of the Bourbons was erected, and the royalists flocked to it in crowds.

In the mean time, the negociations of Chatillon were renewed, but without success; and the sword of destruction was again unsheathed.

Napoleon now determined to turn his arms against Blucher, as the most active and formidable general of the allies. For this purpose, he advanced by forced marches to La Ferté Gaucher; but the Prussian general, who united wariness to courage, had retreated to Soissons, which had been taken by the Russians. Buonaparte commanded the town to be carried by storm at all risks; but the courage of the besieged repelled every assault, and he was obliged to withdraw his troops. He then made an attack upon the left wing of Blucher's army, which was strongly posted betwixt the village of Craonne, and the town of Laon. The contest was bloody but undecisive, and terminated in the withdrawment of Blucher to Laon, which that general considered as a more favourable field of action. Here, upon the 9th and 10th of March, the fight was renewed; but the emperor was repulsed almost at every point, and having lost about 10,000 men, retired upon Rheims, which he carried by assault.

While Napoleon was thus occupied with Blucher, his marshals Oudinot and Gerard, whom he had left with 25,000 men, with orders to prevent the passage of the Aube by Schwartzenberg, were defeated by the Austrians, and compelled to retreat upon the great road to Paris. At this important crisis, Messieurs de Polignac brought intelligence to the allies, that a confederacy, with Talleyrand at its head, had been formed in the capital, to destroy the imperial government, and to unite all parties in promoting the restoration of the Bourbons. This information strengthened the determination of the allies to march upon Paris. Napoleon, having heard of the defeat of his generals, left Rheims, and hastened to Epernay, where he was informed that the allies had retreated in alarm to Troyes, and that they were probably about to retreat to Langres. Delighted with this intelligence, he advanced to Arcis, which had been evacuated at his approach. On the other side of this town, is a plain, on which some few squadrons of cavalry were seen manœuvring; behind

these was posted the division of the Prince of Wirtemberg, while the mass of the army was drawn up still further in the rear. The French cavalry immediately attacked the light troops of the allies; but as these were supported by whole regiments, and by cannon, the attack was abortive, and they were driven back upon the town, before the infantry could march out to support them. Napoleon, perceiving the error, drew his sword, threw himself among the cavalry, rallied their broken ranks, and checked the enemy by an impetuous charge. This encounter afforded time for the infantry to arrive; but the still superior number of the allies, rendered them assailants at all points. Arcis was set on fire by the shells of the besiegers, and darkness separated the combatants. In the course of the night, the emperor was joined by Oudinot, Gerard, and Marmont, but he feared to renew the fight, and retreated along both sides of the Aube.

Napoleon, badly supported by his generals, and surrounded by the allied armies, conceived the bold design of marching upon St Dizier, in order to close the outlet of the enemy from France. This bold and finely conceived march, alarmed for a moment the generals who commanded the confederated armies, to whom it shut out the chance of retreat; but, stimulated by secret encouragement, they boldly advanced upon Paris. On the 25th, they drove back the corps of Marmont and Mortier, which were hastening to the aid of Buonaparte; and near La Fere Champenoise, a large convoy of provisions and ammunition, escorted by 5000 men, after a stout resistance, fell into their hands. Arriving near Paris on the 29th, the allies posted themselves from the wood of Vincennes to the left, to Montmartre on the right. Prince Schwartzenberg sent a proclamation, inviting the citizens to concur with the allies in establishing a pacific government, but the proposal was rejected, and on the 30th, Marmont and Mortier, joined by the garrison of Paris, occupied a position on the heights of Belleville. After a severe contest on the 30th, in which the Parisians lost 4000 men, and the allies, from having to attack batteries and redoubts, about twice that number, it was perceived that the defence

of the capital could no longer be sustained. Marshal Marmont dispatched a flag of truce to Barclay de Tolly, requesting a suspension of hostilities, to arrange the terms on which the city should be surrendered. These were speedily settled; and in the evening Count Nesselrode, the Russian minister, entered Paris. When night fell, the multiplied fires that gleamed from the heights on which the victors bivouacked, indicated to the inhabitants the formidable number of the foes into whose hands they had fallen.

On the morning of the 31st, the allied princes rode into Paris at the head of their troops. The Parisians, in accordance with the fickleness of their character, and to give a grace even to submission, received the emperor Alexander and the king of Prussia, with the most rapturous plaudits. The progress of these monarchs resembled that of sovereigns returned from the field of conquest, and entering their own capitals in triumph. Even at their first entrance within the barriers, the crowd was so great, that it was difficult to move forward; but before they had reached the gate of St. Martin, there was a moral impossibility of proceeding: all the inhabitants of Paris seemed to be assembled at one spot. They hailed their conquerors as deliverers; "Long live the emperor Alexander, Long live the king of Prussia," were the loud and cordial acclamations that were reiterated on every side. The procession lasted several hours, during which 50,000 of the *elite* of the army filed along the boulevards, exhibiting a forest of bayonets, and preceded by cavalry of every description. After making the circuit of half of Paris, the monarchs halted in the Champs Elysées; and the troops having passed in review before them, were dismissed to their respective quarters.

The emperor of Russia, in concert with his ally, the king of Prussia, now issued a declaration, expressing his purpose not to treat with Buonaparte, or any of his family; to respect the integrity of France under its legitimate kings; and to recognize, and guarantee whatever constitution the French should adopt. On the 1st of April, the senate assembled, pursuant to an extraordinary convocation, and Talleyrand was appointed president. A

provisional government was formed; the dynasty of Buonaparte subverted; a new constitution framed; and Louis XVIII. acknowledged as legitimate sovereign.

While these extraordinary measures were being transacted in Paris, Napoleon had abandoned his march upon St. Dizier, and at the head of 50,000 men, marched to the relief of Paris; but on reaching an inn at a few miles distance from the capital, he was informed of the convention which had been entered into with the allies. He turned aside therefore to Fountainbleau, where further intelligence was brought him of the defection of his senate, and of the forfeiture of the crown. After an ineffectual attempt to prolong his power, by proposing to resign in favour of his son, the allies compelled him to an unconditional abdication. On the 11th of April, 1814, he renounced for himself and his children, the throne of France and Italy; and in exchange for his vast sovereignty, received the dominion of Elba, a petty island in the Mediterranean Sea. On the 20th of the same month, he bade farewell to his imperial guards. Such of them as could be collected were drawn out in review before him. The parting sight of these companions of his victories deeply affected him; tears dropped from his eyes, and his features exhibited emotions of tenderness that they were seldom known to reveal. "I cannot embrace you all," said he, "but I embrace your general," (he pressed the general to his bosom.)—"Bring hither the eagle"—(he embraced the standard, and concluded,)—Beloved eagle, may the kisses I bestow on you long resound in the hearts of the brave!—Adieu my children,—Adieu, my brave companions,—Surround me once more—Adieu." The soldiers appeared drowned in grief, and Napoleon retired.

Thus fell this extraordinary man, whose name for twice seven years had filled the world with wonder and astonishment; and thus was terminated a war, the most distinguished by its vicissitudes, and the most important in its results, that the annals of history record.

At the peace which followed, Alexander visited England, and amongst a succession of fêtes given upon the occasion, dined with the prince regent, and the king of Prussia, at the guild-hall of London.

On the return of Buonaparte from Elba, Russia entered into a treaty with Great Britain, Austria, and Prussia, in which the contracting parties agreed to maintain the treaty of Paris, which excluded him from the throne, and to enforce the decree of outlawry against him. They also engaged that each of them should keep constantly in the field an army of 150,000 men; and not to lay down their arms but by common consent. Such, however, was the rapidity of Napoleon's movements, that the battle of Waterloo was fought, before the Russians could have an opportunity of bringing their quota of forces into the field.

On the 26th of September, 1815, the three allied sovereigns, namely, those of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, entered into a treaty at Paris, which received the name of the "Holy Alliance." In this remarkable document, the high contracting parties declared their resolution to take for their sole guide, both in their domestic administrations and foreign relations, the precepts of the holy religion of Christ their Saviour. But subsequent events seemed to indicate that a resolution to support the authority of each other against any revolutionary movement in their own dominions, was the real object of this unusual and mystical combination of potentates.

During the peace which followed the battle of Waterloo, the emperor Alexander appears to have been occupied in zealous endeavours to improve the internal condition of his empire. In May, 1825, he met the Polish diet at Warsaw, which had been convoked by his command; and having opened their sittings with a speech, directed their attention to such measures as he considered most conducive to their interests. During the greater part of the year, he was employed in traversing the various provinces of his dominions. Towards the end of Autumn, he visited the Crimea. On the 10th of November, he quitted the port of Sebastopol, after having carefully inspected it, and every thing connected with the fleet in the Black Sea. On his way to Bachetchserai, he felt a slight pain in his head, which he attributed to his having taken cold. On his *return*, however, he made one of a party on horseback

to travel along the shore of the sea of Azof. He halted at Tangarod, where he felt himself too much indisposed to proceed, and wrote to the empress-mother, announcing his illness. He was affected with feverish symptoms, and a species of erysipelas appeared in one of his legs. This latter disorder suddenly disappeared, and the fever immediately arrived at a very alarming height. On the 18th, there was some improvement of symptoms, but a relapse speedily ensued. He became delirious on the 27th, and on the first of December, expired. A few days before his death, he ordered the blinds of his window to be thrown open; and while he gazed upon the cloudless sky that greeted his view, he exclaimed: "What a lovely day!" The empress Elizabeth had accompanied her husband on his journey, and during the whole of his illness, seldom quitted his pillow. When he had breathed his last, she washed the countenance and hands of him she had loved so well: she closed his eyes, crossed his hands on his bosom, and then fainted.

Thus died, in the 48th year of his age, the emperor Alexander, one of the best and most beloved of monarchs. His talents were highly respectable, his temper equable and mild, his manners affable and refined. To his mother he was a dutiful and affectionate son; and though the lax morality of his court is said to have seduced him from the strict line of conjugal fidelity, the empress Elizabeth enjoyed much of his confidence, and was always treated by him with kindness and respect. He was decidedly the friend of literature, the arts, and every moral and benevolent institution of the age. The zealous support he afforded to the Russian Bible Society, is a proof of the latter remark.* In his conduct towards Napoleon, at an early period of his reign, he appeared wanting in dignity and firmness; but when the invasion of his dominions surrounded him with difficulties and perils, he rose with the occasion, and displayed a self-denial and decision of character that have seldom been excelled. No monarch of modern times has been entrusted with more extensive

* If towards the close of his reign he, in some measure, withheld that support, we may charitably impute this change in his conduct, to the influence of evil *counsellors.*

and unlimited power; and yet perhaps there was never a prince by whom power was less abused. Early in his reign, he had given his country, in a manner, a new constitution; re-organizing the senate, and limiting the power of governors. When he was crowned king of Poland in 1815, he limited his own authority, granted legislative powers, and the privilege of self-taxation to the Polish senate, and a representative body to the people. One of his ukases forbade the confiscation of hereditary property in Russia, in any criminal case whatever, an advantage, until his reign, enjoyed only by the nobility. His proclamations, during the invasion of France, breathed a spirit of conciliation and benevolence; and when the fortunes of Buonaparte were humbled, he discovered no wish to trample on his once proud and insulting foe. His zeal in behalf of the "holy alliance," may seem to have indicated a leaning towards despotic measures; but we must remember that the semi-barbarous condition of the subjects of a great proportion of his empire, renders them ill qualified for the enjoyment of rational liberty. In a word, if he has not all the glory of a Peter I., in originating improvements, he has the honour of enlarging them with exemplary patience and industry: and if he never pursued the ambitious designs of a Catherine, with regard to other nations, he rescued his own country from the grasp of lawless ambition, and took the lead in a series of struggles that were essential to the liberty of half a civilized world.

The intelligence of the death of Alexander, produced a great alarm throughout Europe; for it endangered the internal peace of the Russian empire, and might induce a change in the whole course of its foreign policy. This alarm was at first increased by some idle rumours that attributed his death to assassination; and by the opinions which were entertained of the character of his supposed successor, the grand-duke Constantine.

It was not until the 7th of December, that the illness of Alexander was reported at Petersburg; and a few days after, the principal nobility, ministers, generals, and a great crowd of people assembled in one of the principal churches, to offer prayers for his reco-

very. Before divine service was ended, the death of the emperor was announced, and the church was filled with weeping and lamentation. The grand-duke Nicholas, having disclosed the mournful tidings to the empress-mother, called together the guards of the palace, and took before them the oath of allegiance to the emperor Constantine I. The guard, all the commanders of corps, together with the general staff, followed his example, and then proceeded to receive the oath of the troops of the garrison. Duringthe whole of this proceeding, Constantine was at Warsaw.

The senate now announced to Nicholas, that the late emperor had deposited with them, in October, 1825, a sealed packet, which he commanded them to open in case of his death. This command they had obeyed: and they had found that the packet contained a letter of Constantine, in which he renounced the succession to the throne,* together with a manifesto of Alexander which ratified this act of renunciation, and declared Nicholas heir to the crown. Documents of the same tenour had been deposited, with the holy synod, the directing senate, and the cathedral church of Ascension at Moscow. Nicholas, however, refused to act upon these instruments.

In the mean time, Constantine continued to live at Warsaw as a private individual; and sent two letters to the capital, one to his mother, and the other to Nicholas; in both which he adhered to the renunciation of the throne. After receiving intelligence that the oath of allegiance had been taken to him, he still persisted in his purpose; and refused to accept the official documents which had been transmitted to him as emperor. Nicholas then consented to accept the imperial dignity; and by a manifesto, dated the 24th of December, announced his accession, and communicated to the empire the documents on which his right to the throne was founded. On the 25th, he read, in the senate, the renunciation of the crown by his brother, and declared that he accepted the throne. He was immediately proclaimed emperor of Russia. On the 26th, the

* In consequence of his having married a Polish lady of no very elevated rank.

manifesto of Nicholas I. was published; and in the morning of that day, all the regiments of guards were to take the oath of allegiance to the new sovereign. At noon, the general of the guards proceeded to the palace, to announce that the oath had been taken by the regiment of horse guards, as well as by several other regiments then at St. Petersburg. But intelligence was soon brought that four officers of artillery had shown some opposition, and had been placed under arrest, though the remainder of the artillery had taken the oath unanimously. Immediately afterwards, it was announced that three or four hundred men of the regiment of Moscow, had quitted their barracks with colours flying, and had proclaimed Constantine I. These men proceeded to the square of Isaac, where they were soon joined by great numbers of the people, by many soldiers of the body grenadier regiment, and of the marines of the guard. No other corps, however, took part in the sedition, and the number of the revolters did not exceed 2,000.

When general Miradovitch was informed of these disorders, he hastened to the square, but was immediately shot by one of the insurgents.

The emperor then appeared among them unarmed, and endeavoured to reclaim them, but without success. At length, when all gentle means had been employed in vain, the troops and artillery were ordered to advance; and the rebels were soon dispersed, and pursued in all directions.

This disturbance was supposed to have been part of a plot, which, under the pretence of attachment to the cause of Constantine, was to procure the assassination of the whole of the imperial family, and of all that should adhere to their cause. A special commission of inquiry was therefore instituted, which is reported to have quickly discovered the nature and extent of the conspiracy, and the names of those who were most active in its formation and progress. Numerous arrests and several executions took place; and the emperor was firmly seated on his throne.

NICHOLAS.

NICHOLAS, on his accession to the throne, caused the following declaration to be addressed to the foreign ministers at his court: "Called to the inheritance of the dominions of the emperor Alexander, the emperor Nicholas inherits also the principles which directed the policy of his august predecessor; and his imperial majesty has therefore given orders to his ambassadors, ministers, and agents at foreign courts, to declare to them, that earnestly striving to follow the footsteps of the sovereign whose loss he deplores, he will profess the same fidelity to the engagements contracted by Russia, the same respect for all rights consecrated by existing treaties, the same attachment to the maxims which ensure the general peace, and of the bonds that subsist between the powers. On the other hand, the emperor confidently hopes from them the same disposition to maintain the relations of intimate friendship, and mutual confidence, which, having been established and maintained under the emperor Alexander, had given to Europe ten years of repose."

In the year 1826, Great Britain, France, and Russia offered their services to mediate between Turkey and Greece, but without effect. The three powers therefore entered into a treaty, according to which, they engaged to furnish, each its contingent of ships and vessels of war, to be sent simultaneously into the Archipelago, for the purpose of arresting the progress of hostilities, and of mediating between the belligerent parties. Down to the middle of 1827, however, the Turkish governor refused all mediation; the result of which was, that a fleet of ten sail of the line, with a corresponding number of frigates and fire-ships, proceeded to the Mediterranean, with the view of enforcing a compliance with the terms of the treaty.

In the mean time, the Egyptian fleet, which had been for some time cruising in the Dardanelles, weighed anchor on the night of the 30th of September, 1827, from the port of Navarino, in order to second the

movements of Ibrahim Pacha against the Greeks. Admiral Codrington, who commanded the allied squadron, was anchoring at Zante, when this fleet appeared off the coast of that island, to the great alarm of the inhabitants. A parley took place, and the Egyptians returned to Navarino, whither the admiral had directed them to shape their course. After remaining himself a few days at Zante, he sailed for Navarino, where he was to be joined on the 13th by admiral the chevalier de Rigny, having under his command the French ships; and on the 15th, by the Russian squadron, under the command of Admiral count Heyden. The combined fleets arrived in the port of Navarino, on the 21st of October, where they found the Turkish ships moored in the form of a crescent. The respective force of the two hostile fleets was as follows:—of the allies, twenty-six sail, including ships of the line, frigates, corvettes, and schooners:—the Turkish armament comprised seventy sail of various sizes.

Admiral Codrington, having moored his fleet alongside that of the enemy, dispatched one of his pilots in a boat, to the commandant of the enemy's squadron, to express to him his earnest desire to prevent the effusion of blood, but at the same time to demand that the articles of the treaty should be carried into effect. No sooner had the boat approached near to the Turkish admiral's ship, than she was fired upon, and the pilot killed. Soon afterwards, the same ship fired into the Asia, one of the English ships of the line, which immediately returned the salutation, and in a little time, the action became general. This bloody and destructive battle raged for four hours, and the scene of wreck and ruin which presented itself at its termination, was such as has rarely been witnessed. Of the Turkish fleet, no less than 62 sail were burnt, sunk, or driven on shore complete wrecks; and from a statement of the Turkish admiral, it appears than on board of two line of battle ships, each with a crew of 850 men, there were killed, in the one ship 650, and in the other 400. The loss on the part of the British consisted of 75 killed, and 197 wounded. On the part of the French, 43 were killed, and 144 wounded; the return of the Russian loss is unknown.

After the action had subsided, a note was addressed to the Turkish and Egyptian commanders, declaring, that as the squadrons of the allied powers did not enter Navarino with a hostile intention, but only to renew to the commanders of the Turkish fleet propositions which were advantageous to the Grand Seignior himself, it was not their intention to destroy what ships of the Ottoman navy remained; but that if one shot should be again fired on a ship or boat belonging to the allied powers, they would immediately destroy all the remaining vessels, as well as the forts of Navarino; and would consider such act of hostility as a formal declaration of the Porte against the three allied powers. The Turkish chiefs, as a token of their pacific intentions, were required to have the white flag hoisted on all the forts before the end of the day, and to give a decisive answer before sunset. On this memorable occasion, the most perfect cordiality prevailed among the allies. The French and Russian squadrons actively co-operated; and after the action, mutual official compliments passed between the respective admirals, and acknowledgments of reciprocal assistance between the officers of the different nations.

CHAP. I.

War with Turkey.

The intelligence of the battle of Navarino was received at Constantinople on the 5th of December, and so affected the Sultan that he is said to have shut himself up in his chamber for an entire day. On the 20th, a Turkish manifesto was published, which was filled with complaints against the allied powers, all the causes of which, however, were traced to the hostile influence of Russia, whose insolence and aggressions were dwelt on in the most severe and unmeasured terms. To this manifesto, a demi-official answer appeared on the 11th of March 1828, in the Russian government journal, and was repeated on the 25th of April, in the expanded form of a declaration of war.

Turkey has two lines of defence, equally formidable by nature, and strengthened by art. The more advanced is the line of the Danube, in the course of which, we find the fortresses of Widin, Nikipoli, Rustchuk, and Silistria on the right, and Ghiurgevo, and Brahilov (otherwise Brahilof) on the left bank. The second and inner line is the snowy range of the Balkan, which stretches from the mouth of the Camtchi, to the sources of the Maritza. The grand keys of the Balkan are Varna and Shumla. The former, the ancient *Odessus*, is situate on the left bank of the small river Pravadi, or Varna, which falls into a gulf that derives its name from the fort. It is very imperfectly defended by art, but the flat and marshy nature of the surrounding country renders it almost impossible to get within such a distance of its walls as to make a battering train available for assault. Shumla is a large town, whose principal defence has always been its entrenched camp, which on all occasions of emergency, is occupied by a powerful and determined body of troops. Silistria, the defence of which excited so much attention during the war, is situate in the immediate neighbourhood of the Danube, at about 70 miles east from Rustchuk, and about the same distance north from Shumla. The town stands in a sort of basin, surrounded by five hills of considerable height, but not near enough to command the walls. The country round is covered with brush-wood, and cut with numerous ravines; and, indeed, the dense forest that clothes the whole of the base of the Balkan from Shumla, down to Pravadi, and thence to the sea, extends along the bank of the Danube, very nearly all the way from Shumla to Silistria. Bazarjik, the only other place of considerable note, whose name became familiar to our ears during the struggle between the tzar and the Porte, lies at the first defiles of the Balkan, and is distant about 70 miles from the place where the Russian army passed the Danube, and reckoning from the south side of the pontoon-bridge at Iassatchi, it is about half-way to Adrianople, 60 miles from Silistria, and 25 from Varna —Having thus described the seat, we shall proceed to narrate the leading events of the war.

On the 7th of May, the advanced guard of the imperial army entered Turkish Moldavia. Jassy was immediately taken possession of; 3,000 Kozacks were sent forward to Bucharest, which they entered on the 10th, and a body of 14,000 men crossed the Sereth, a considerable stream which falls into the Danube, near to the spot where the Pruth joins that river. Galatz, a fortress between the Sereth and the Pruth, was taken without resistance, and measures were immediately adopted for pressing the siege of Brahilov. The trenches were opened before the town on the 18th, under the direction of General Wittgenstein, who commanded the besieging corps, aided by the Grand Duke Michael.

On the 21st, the emperor passed the Pruth, and hastened to join his brother; and on the 22nd, a breaching battery was unmasked within 100 toises of the walls. On the 24th, two Turks who had been taken prisoners were sent back to the town with a message from Nicholas, that no conditions of surrender would be listened to, if not delivered within twelve hours. It cannot however be supposed that the Emperor so miscalculated the enemy's power of resistance, or his own means of attack, as to imagine that there was the smallest chance of the capture of Brahilov within the time specified, unless extraordinary measures were adopted to bring about such an event. It would be still more derogatory from the character of the emperor to suppose that the message referred to was a piece of empty and idle gasconade. We are justified therefore in coming to the conclusion, that an entrance into Brahilov was sought by the same golden key which was afterwards employed in gaining possession of Varna. But however this may have been, the Turkish general did not offer to capitulate for more than twelve days after the receipt of the message; nor was the fortress taken possession of by the Russians until the 19th of June. The siege of Brahilov, is said to have cost the emperor 15,000 of his bravest troops.

On the 7th of June, the imperial troops, in three divisons, passed the Danube, and after taking two garrisons, advanced towards the three points, on which

the attention of the emperor was chiefly fixed—Silistria, Shumla, and Varna. On the 11th of July, the left wing of the imperial army had reached Kavarna, a sea-port town, about 25 miles to the eastward of Varna, while the advanced guard were pushed forward to the latter town. On the same day, general Roth, on the extreme right, passed the Danube at Hirsova, half-way between Brahilov and Silistria, with a view to the siege of the latter; and the division of the centre took possession of Bazarjik. The march of the Russians, from the time of their quitting the banks of the Danube, seems to have been very little opposed by the enemy, and they were favoured during a greater part of it with fine weather and tolerable roads. As they advanced, however, to the mountain ridge, the detached corps of the Turks concentrated as they retired, and on the Russians reaching Bazarjik, they were attacked by a large body of the enemy, which they repulsed with a loss of 50,000 men, but not without suffering considerably themselves.

On the 14th of July, Varna was invested so far as the nature of the ground permitted; on the 20th, the central division of the army was within sight of Shumla, and the division of Roth had reached the heights in the neighbourhood of Silistria. The investment of these three important fortresses, may therefore be considered as completed nearly about the same time.

Up to the end of September, the progress of the Russians before Varna was extremely slow, while the privations which they endured from sickness, and the frequent attacks of the enemy, were very great. If to these had been added a deficient supply of provisions, or ammunition, the emperor must have retreated in disgrace; but the destruction of the Turkish fleet, by leaving the Black Sea in the possession of the Russian admiral, who kept up a constant communication with the besieging army, prevented a termination, which might not have been improbable, had the "untoward event" of Navarino never occurred.

On the 29th of September, after some severe skirmishes, an attempt was made to storm Varna, which was unsuccessful; but on the 10th of October, a breach

having been effected in the inner wall of the town, a few Kozacks gained admission, though almost immediately compelled to retire, and inspired such terror into the besieged, that, next day, the garrison surrendered at discretion, Yussuff Pacha, the commander of the forces of the town, being the first to come over. The Capitan Pacha retired to the citadel with 300 followers, whence he was allowed, two days after, to retire with all the honours of war.

The surrender of Varna excited very general surprise. It seemed extraordinary that a garrison, which had bravely repulsed the enemy for three months, should, on the unsuccessful irruption of a few Kozacks, have all at once come to a resolution to lay down their arms. We cannot wonder, therefore, that in Turkey Yussuff was declared a traitor; and that in most countries of Europe, it was generally supposed, that in the affair of Varna, Russian gold purchased what Russian valour was unable to achieve.

On the 2nd of November, Wittgenstein made a vigorous effort to capture Silistria, by cannonading it for two days and two nights, without interruption; but this effort, like those that had preceded it, was vain. In the mean time, the weather had become so dreadfully bad, that the troops could no longer remain exposed to it. Snow and rain fell in such quantities as to fill the trenches, and the ice beginning to appear on the Danube, threatened to interrupt the communication with the left bank.

On the 15th of October, the Russians began to retire from Shumla upon Silistria, followed closely by the Turkish troops. The retreat is described as disastrous: most of the guns were forced to be abandoned, and the greater part of the horse perished. On the 19th, the Turks attacked the Russian rear-guard with great fury, in a woody defile, near a village named Achdocoda. The contest was fierce; but the Turks were at last beaten off, and the Russians effected a junction with their compatriots at Silistria.

On the 10th of November, every hope of reducing Silistria being abandoned, the divisions of Silistria and Shumla re-crossed the Danube, and fixed their head-

quarters, the former at Bucharest, and the latter at Yassy. Thus terminated the first campaign, in which Russia acquired the possession of Brahilov, one of the principal keys of the Danube in the east, and Varna, the principal key of the Balkan in the south, but not without a most prodigious waste of both money and men.

During the first operations of the second campaign, which opened tardily, from the unfavourable state of the weather, the Turks, under their able and enterpising Grand Vizier, Redshid Pacha, conducted their affairs with great skill and valour; but the superior tactics and resources of their opponents, at length prevailed. The vizier had left the entrenched camp before Shumla, for the purpose of investing Pravadi, on or about the 24th May, 1829. Intelligence of this movement was communicated to general Diebitsch, the Russian commander-in-chief, before Silistria, on the 4th of June; and on the 5th, he proceeded, by an unfrequented route, to intercept the vizier's supplies from Shumla, and thus compel him to fight. On the night of the 10th, having been previously joined by 10,000 men under Roth, he took up a strong position in the Turkish rear. The vizier appears to have been ignorant of the extent of the forces opposed to him; and though their approach determined him to raise the siege of Pravadi, he commenced his retreat upon Shumla, in the opinion that it would not be seriously disputed. The combat was of the most sanguinary description, and of four hours duration. The grand Vizier was in the end forced to retreat, or as the Russian chief says, to flee in all directions, abandoning 40 pieces of cannon, with all his ammunition waggons, his camp, and the whole of his baggage; and leaving 2000 men killed on the field, with 1500 prisoners.

After the fall of Silistria, the opposition of the Turks seems to have been but feeble. The Russians having passed the Balkan, pursued their victorious career to Adrianople, and would probably have brought the war to a close under the walls of the capital itself, had not the Sultan, backed by the ambassadors of the foreign powers, sent to treat with the tzar. A peace

was soon after concluded between Russia and the Porte, on terms which do credit to the moderation of Nicholas.

CHAP. II.

Polish Revolt.

THE only important event of the reign of Nicholas that remains to be noticed, is the revolution of Poland.

On the 24th of October, 1830, printed hand-bills began to be circulated in Warsaw, calling upon the Poles to avenge their grievances, and, by a desperate effort, to shake off the Russian yoke. Placards were put up, on the night of the same day, against the walls of the grand duke Constantine's* palace, announcing

* Constantine, it is well known, had been appointed viceroy of Poland by Alexander. In disposition and character, he appears to have greatly resembled his father Paul, as the following anecdotes will sufficiently prove:—

He frequently placed officers under arrest, for the offence of leaving a single button out of its hole. At the theatre of Petersburg, his principal occupation was to espy the officers of his own regiment of Hulans,; and if, through the means of his glass, he thought he perceived any one of them, who was not bound up, at all points, in the strictest conformity with his latest regulations, an aid-de-camp was dispatched to the offender, with orders for his immediate apprehension.

One day, when the grand duke was on parade at Warsaw, he perceived that the uniform coat of one of his colonels, who was at a considerable distance from him, was unbuttoned. He immediately summoned the offender into his presence, and demanded how he had dared to appear before him in dishabille. The colonel ventured to observe, that not being strictly on duty, and feeling oppressed by the heat, he did not expect to be called to account, because his coat was not entirely buttoned up to his neck. This reply roused the ire of Constantine; he applied a violent blow to the colonel's face, and ordered him to prison. On the following day, the unhappy man committed suicide.

On another occasion, Constantine, while making his diurnal inspection of the military posts of Warsaw, came to the northern gate, where the sub-lieutenant, count Weliopolsky, commanded the piquet on duty. The young count had quitted his post for a few moments, for the purpose of buying a stamped sheet of paper, on which all petitions to the grand duke were commanded to be written. On finding him absent from his post, Constantine was seized with a paroxysm of rage, and in that unhappy temper did the poor count find him, when he returned with paper in his hand. Not content with venting his anger in mere abuse, the tyrant struck him several blows; and on his attempting to excuse himself, by explaining the cause of his absence, he instantly ordered him to receive three hundred lashes in his presence. Weliopolsky lingered some days from the effects of this brutal chastisement and died Can it be matter of surprise, that a country, thus governed, should engage in revolt?

that by the first day of the new year, that house would be "to let." The grand duke treated this indication of popular resentment with comparative indifference; but he thought that it might be as well to conciliate the attachment of the Poles, by greater condescension and gentleness of conduct than he had hitherto displayed. He, therefore, appeared in public more frequently than he had done since his last marriage, and entered into familiar conversation with persons of all conditions. At the same time, he deemed a few precautions prudent: his Russian guard was increased; his own Russian regiment put in a state of constant readiness for action; the number of his spies was considerably multiplied, and the ordinary price of their services doubled. The excitement, however, becoming general, Constantine determined to resort to acts of severity, in order to effect its early suppression. Thirty students of the university were arrested, under suspicion of being among the chief promoters of a general conspiracy, and a military commission was appointed to examine them, and report to the grand duke the result of their investigation. Far from denying the truth of the charge of seditious designs brought against them, these intrepid youths admitted the reality of all the facts upon which they were questioned, and told the president of the commission, general Roznietzki,* that if their plans had succeeded, they would have hanged him as a traitor to his country, in the principal square of Warsaw. They were all sent to Petersburg, there to await the decision of the emperor.

On the night of the 29th, a party of young men, accompanied by thirteen students, all armed with pocket-pistols and daggers, proceeded to the grand duke's country-house, at Belvedere,† where they obtained admission by killing two sentinels, and overpowering all who came in their way. Some of the conspirators, who were well acquainted with the localities of the chateau, and the grand duke's habits

* Roznietzki had passed over to the Russians, with four regiments, during Napoleon's last campaign.

† About two miles from Warsaw.

of living in it, then pushed forward, dagger in hand, to his closet, for the purpose of dispatching him without loss of time. The grand duke, however, on hearing the noise occasioned by their entrance, immediately locked his door, and then jumped out of a window into the garden, and ran towards a camp formed by his own regiment, half-way on the road between Belvedere and Warsaw. Here he found his soldiers defending themselves against another party of about 150 confederates, who had attacked them suddenly, and with such vigour, as to throw the whole camp into confusion. The grand duke, not knowing the number of his assailants, ordered his regiment to retire, and left them masters of the field, of two pieces cannon, and a goodly number of arms with ammunition. The victors, on their return to Warsaw, finding the whole populace ready for action, divided them into different parties, and themselves into companies, each of which led the people to the different stations of the Russian garrison. One of these parties proceeded to the arsenal, which being guarded chiefly by Polish soldiers, was speedily taken, and the immense quantity of muskets and sabres it contained, distributed to the people. The conspirators, having thus become possessed of the implements of war, soon cleared the whole city of the Russians, and remained masters of the place. Some Polish detachments, who at the commencement of the revolt, refused to give up their arms to the people, were massacred as traitors. Forty-one colonels or majors were killed in endeavouring to keep the troops in obedience. Particular search was made for general Roznietski; but he was no where to be found, having made his escape in disguise. The movement ceased to have the character of a mere conspiracy, and a universal rising of the inhabitants of Warsaw took place.

The prisons in Warsaw, which had been lately filled with the victims of Russian espionage, were thrown open, and their inmates instantly prepared to assist in their country's cause. On the evening of the 30th, 40,000 Poles were equipped for the field, independent of the regular Polish regiments, which soon after formed an army of no unimposing kind. Meanwhile,

the houses lately occupied by the Russians, were attacked by the populace, who broke every article of furniture, throwing the fragments out of the windows, into the streets. The grand duke's late spies were hunted with determined perseverance, and some of them being dragged forth from their hiding-places, were massacred in the streets. Among these was Markoff, Constantine's barber, a wretch who had enriched himself by turning informer against his other customers, and reporting to his patron not only what he saw and heard, but abundance of invention besides. His furniture was entirely destroyed, as well as the splendid house his ill-earned riches had enabled him to raise.

Under such circumstances, Warsaw necessarily remained, for a few days, in a state of anarchy and confusion. Some of its principal inhabitants, however, assembled at last, to consult on what ought to be done. They first sent a deputation to the grand duke, who had encamped with his Russians a few miles from Warsaw, requesting that he would place himself at the head of the Russian movement; and upon receiving his refusal, they immediately proceeded to form a provisional government, and to adopt other measures, which the crisis of affairs seemed to prescribe. A kind of national guard was formed, chiefly of young students, and respectable householders, parties of whom paraded the streets, to enjoin order on the populace. The organization of this new order of things, the measures adopted for the defence of the place, and the arrangement of the military operations that would become inevitable, occupied several days. General Klopitzki was then, by unanimous consent, chosen commander-in-chief of the army, and proposed as dictator.

In the early part of December, the grand duke sent a message from his camp to the provisional authorities at Warsaw, to know what the wishes of the Polish nation were. A deputation was, therefore, sent to him, to submit to him formally the following demands, in the name of the Polish nation;—the observance of the constitution which had been given to them by Alexander, and the restitution to the kingdom of

Poland of the Polish provinces which were taken and annexed to Russia, previously to the act of dismemberment in 1795. To these terms, the grand duke declared that he felt no aversion; but added, that he should not be warranted in subscribing to them, without special authority from the emperor, as king of Poland.

One of the earliest precautions taken by the provisional government, was that of securing the possession of two important fortresses near Warsaw, Modlen and Zamosk, against which powerful detachments were sent. The Russians, who were in garrison in these fortresses, surrendered without even a show of resistance, and were made prisoners of war. Sufficient ammunition was found in them for three campaigns, and provisions, cloth, uniforms, and artillery enough to provide for 2000 men.

Consultations were now held by the Polish leaders, as to the means which ought to be pursued, with the view, if possible, of gaining the wished-for object without the effusion of blood. It was determined that a deputation should proceed to Petersburg, with prince Lubetzki at its head, for the purpose of proposing to Nicholas, that he should continue to reign over Poland, on the conditions lately submitted to Constantine, and which that prince had referred to his brother. The emperor, however, refused to give this deputation a formal audience, and declared that he would listen to no representations that did not recognize his sovereign authority, and the willingness of the Poles to throw themselves entirely on his clemency. He also declared his willingness to forgive his "rebel subjects," with the exception of the promoters of the revolt. The consequences of so arrogant and insulting a declaration may be easily anticipated. The watchword of the Poles was "Independence or death," and preparations were every where made to defend their country.

Klopitzski, having been regularly appointed dictator by the senate, lost no time in forming a council of government, and adopted every possible means to concentrate the Polish forces, as well as to increase them by enlistments. Of these latter, there was no scarcity: *men of all conditions* and ages sought the privilege of

fighting their country's battle, and many of the volunteers brought money with them, which they prayed the government to accept, and employ for the public service. Public donations, indeed, poured in on every side. Nobles, merchants, tradesmen, farmers, peasants, and labourers of all descriptions, brought to the public treasury, all they could afford to give; so that the national cause incurred no risk of failure from the want of pecuniary means for its support. Even seventy-eight Jews brought the sum of 28,000 florins, raised among themselves.

Patriotic societies were formed in different parts of the city for the purpose of procuring clothing for recruits, and for that of taking care of their wives and children, during their absence in the field. Manufacturers of arms furnished the arsenal gratuitously. Tailors worked gratis in making uniforms for the army, and unions were formed for the purpose of supplying the hospitals with every possible requisite for those who should be wounded in their country's cause. The number of cannon and muskets being unequal to the demands of 100,000 men, all the old bells of churches, and almost all the iron railings attached to the houses and gardens, were sent to the foundries. In a word, never did a nation respond to the call of liberty with greater ardour and zeal.

Towards the end of January, it was reported that general Klopitzki talked of resigning the dictatorship, and many anxious surmises were made as to his motive in deserting the national cause at so important a crisis. Being pressed by the senate, to explain what his real sentiments and intentions were, he acknowledged that he did entertain some doubt of his ability to render his country the service that was expected of him at such a juncture, and that, therefore, he had determined to resign the dictatorship. This declaration was followed by a manifesto, containing his formal act of resignation; and prince Radzivil was elected generalissimo in his stead.

Klopitzki's scruples, in continuing to exercise the dictatorship, most probably arose from his knowledge of the fact, that the dethronement of the tzar, as king Poland, was about to be proposed in the senate,

and would infallibly pass. That he had been in correspondence with Nicholas was proved, by the publication of a letter to him by general Graboffski, in which he was informed that the emperor had received his propositions, and that he would be speedily informed of his designs, by his proclamation to the Polish nation.

The proclamation referred to in Graboffski's letter, was published in all the newspapers of the day, and convinced the Poles, that the autocrat would consent to no treaty, in which entire submission was not proposed as a preliminary stipulation. But they had ceased to feel any wish for negociation, and gave a memorable answer to this formidable document, by expelling Nicholas and his race from the throne of Poland. This act of dethronement, having been proposed in the senate by count Soltyk, was carried without a dissentient voice.

The proclamation of Nicholas was followed by orders to the army in Lithuania to advance toward Warsaw, after being joined by numerous reinforcements, and Diebitsch was appointed to take the command against the Poles. No time was lost by the Polish government, to put things in an efficient posture of defence. A regular army of 70,000 infantry, and 20,000 cavalry was speedily in the field, with 100 pieces of artillery, and aided by 20,000 irregular troops. The Russians counted 80,000 infantry, 15,000 cavalry, and 20,000 Kozacks, with 400 pieces of artillery, which gave them an immense advantage over the Poles. But this was in a great measure counterbalanced by the great superiority of the Polish cavalry, and by advantages of greater activity and military skill, as well as those which naturally accrued from their fighting on their own soil. All Europe has since witnessed the dauntless and persevering efforts of the Poles; but, alas, these efforts have been made in vain. The gigantic resources of Russia have again triumphed; Warsaw has fallen; and Poland seems destined to again become the victim of tyranny and oppression.

THE END.

ERRATA.

Page 138, line 9 from top, insert *and* after *consumed*
—— 202, —— 3 from top, reject the second *the*
—— 246, —— 2 from bottom, reject *he* before *ran*
—— 259, —— 4 from top, insert an ? after *multitude*
—— 263, —— 6 from top, for *this church*, read *the church*
—— 264, —— 10 from top, for *impostors* read *imposture*
—— 274, —— 15 from top, for *affrighted* read *terrified*
—— 286, —— 12 from top, for *Matoseff*, read *Matichef*
—— 287, —— 22 from top, erase *is*
—— 304, —— 3 from bottom, for *ever*, read *even*
—— 309, —— 15 from bottom, for *Neva* read *Narva*
—— 327, —— 7 from top, for *Marcinburg*, read *Marienburg*
—— 332, —— 8 from bottom, for *privation*, read *privations*
—— 339, —— 16 from top, for *his own head*, read *figure of his own head*.
—— 377, —— 6 from top, insert *and* before *made*
—— 379, —— 24 from top, *with* should be transferred to line 23
—— 386, —— 6 from top, for *and the other* read *or the other*
—— 441, —— 18 from bottom, for *instruction* read *instructions*
—— 539, —— 14 from top, insert *of* between *pieces* and *cannon*

W. Byers, Printer, Devonport.

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

A.

ARCHIMANDRITE. The chief of an abbey.

B.

BULGARIANS. This nation had extended itself along the Don and the Yaik, about the Volga and the Kaima, and carried on a great trade to Persia, India, Greece, and even to Italy and France, by the Euxine. They also traded with the Russians, and through them with the northern nations. Bulgaria was therefore, in a manner, the emporium of European and Asiatic commerce.

BASILICUM. A church.

BORYSTHENES. The modern Dnieper.

BOYARS, or BOIARS. Nobles who, as commanders of the army, were the ministers and counsellors of the Prince, especially as in early times the wars were so perpetual.

C.

CHERSONESUS TAURICA. The modern Crimea.

D.

DREVLIANS. A Slavonian people, so called from the forests which they inhabited. Their seats extended along the river Pripet, where several of the towns formerly belonging to them still exist; as Obrotsch, Iskorosch, anciently Korosten.

E.

EUXINE. The Black Sea.

F.

FIEF, or FIEFDOM. A possession held by some tenure of a *superior.*

G.

GREEK FIRE. The Greeks had the art of preparing a fire, composed of an inflammable substance, which spontaneously kindled on falling on combustible matter, and consumed every thing that it touched. The art of preparing it has been lost.

H.

HETMAN. Chief.

K.

KAPTSCHAK. Under this general denomination were comprehended many countries situate about the Caspian, and farther onwards towards Europe.

KHOZARES, KOZARES, or KHOZARS. These people gave their name to the Caspian, which in Persian authors is called the sea of the Kozares. They came in swarms down the side of mount Caucacus in the sixth century, and took possession of the eastern shores of the Euxine. They afterwards spread over the shores of the Dnieper, the Dniester, and the Bogue, and subdued the various tribes that lived on the borders of those rivers. The appellation *Kozares* signifies robbers.

KRIVITCHES. A Sarmatian people, who dwelt in Smolensk, and mingled afterwards with the Slaves. They lived between the rivers Pripet and Dwina; and afterwards spread farther up the Volga, the Dwina, and Dnieper. Their name signifies dwelling above.

M.

MANICHÆAN. The Manichees, so called from their founder Manes, or Manichæus, were a sect that arose about A. D. 277, and spread principally in Arabia, Egypt, and Africa. They maintained the existence of two great principles, a good and an evil one: the first, a most pure and subtile matter, which did nothing but good; and the second, a gross and corrupt substance which did nothing but evil.

MAZEPPA. A hetman of the Kozacks, was born in Podolia, of a noble, but poor Polish family, and became page to the king, John Casimir. Having been found in an intrigue with a lady, he was fastened to the back of a wild horse, and left to his fate. The animal having been bred in the Ukraine deserts, fled thither, and expiring at length with fatigue, sunk under his rider, who was found by the peasants half dead. Their care, however, recovered him; and the hetman of the Kozacks having in 1687 been deposed, Mazeppa was elected his successor. In this situation, he acquired the confidence of Peter the Great, and was created prince of the Ukraine; but he soon after entered into a secret league with

Charles XII., and joined that prince when he was advancing towards Southern Russia. The poem of Mazeppa, by Lord Byron, is founded upon a part of the preceding facts.

O.

ODIN. This idol was among northern nations the God of war.

P.

PEREIASLAVL. A town situate between the rivers Trubesh and Alta.

PETCHENEGANS. A people who inhabited the banks of the Yaik and the Volga, but whose origin is unknown.

PHAROS. A light-house, or watch-tower.

POLOVTZES. A nation that, being driven from their seats in Asia, came in the year 1055 to the rivers Kuban and Don, and occupied the country in which the Khozares had formerly dwelt.

R.

RUSSIANS. The origin of this name is uncertain. It is probable, however, that the Varagians who came with Rurik to the shores of the Ladoga, had previously borne the name of Russians.

S.

STRELITZES. *i. e.* Guards. They were similar to the Janissaries at Constantinople, being undisciplined like them, and more formidable on that account, than for their bravery.

T.

TORTCHESK. The capital of the Torkes, whose residence was on the river Rosa.

TSCHUDES. A people who resided in Livonia and Esthonia. Their name signifies an acquaintance or neighbour.

U.

UKASE. An edict.

UNGRIANS. A people who in the year 744, settled in Pannonia.

V.

VARAGIANS or VARAGES. A people of Gothic origin, who were not a particular nation. The name was applied to the various tribes who inhabited the shores of the Baltic, and who, according to the chronicle of Nestor, were divided into Swedes, Normans, Angles, and Russians. All these were addicted to piracy, an employment to which, as it required distinguished courage, no disgrace was attached in these early ages. It was common to ask the most famous voyagers, if they were not pirates: and even princes embarked at the head of their subjects, to scour and ravage the seas. This system of marine plunder, continued to the twelfth century, when it was superseded by the influence of commerce and laws. There is a tradition that the people of Novgorod had in former times been tributary to the Varagians.

VOYEVODE. A general.